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TOPICS - OF - THE - DAY

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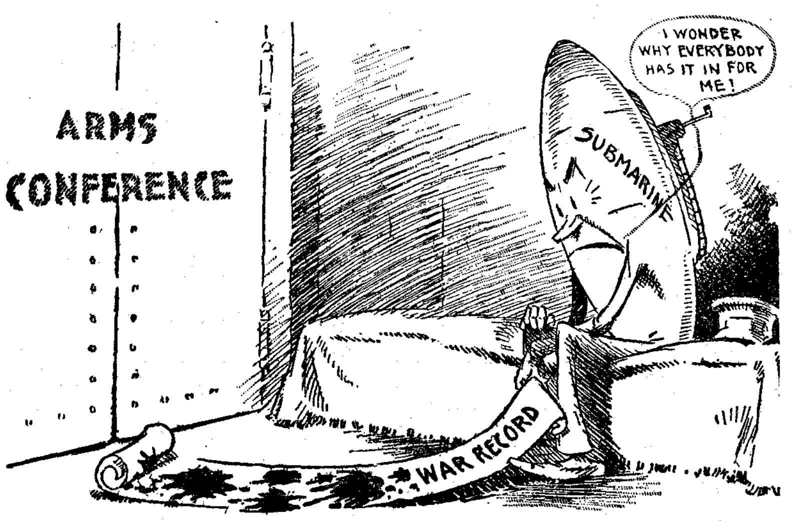
FRANCE'S DEMAND FOR SUBMARINES



HANDICAPPED WITH A PAST.

—Brown in the Chicago *Daily News.*

THE SUBMARINE, a weapon invented by America but made abhorrent by Germany, to-day finds an unexpected and ardent champion in France. The British delegation pleaded with the Arms Conference for the total abolition of this weapon, and Lord Lee declared that Great Britain was ready to sink her powerful submarine flotilla in mid-Atlantic to prove her good faith; the American delegation offered a compromise plan that would reduce submarine tonnage below the figures suggested in the original Hughes program, but the French delegation, backed by the French Government, flatly rejected both proposals and demanded a submarine tonnage of 90,000—which is more than double her present tonnage and 30,000 tons more than the American compromise plan allotted to Great Britain or the United States. This attitude on the part of France drew expressions of disappointment from Secretary Hughes and Mr. Balfour; and the London *Daily Chronicle*, regarded as Lloyd George's paper, remarked bitterly:

> "A great part of the world's hope of limiting naval expenditure and the dangers of competitive rivalry is thus defeated—defeated amid the regrets and protests of the United States, Britain, Italy and Japan—by the selfish militarism of France. That is the plain and ugly fact for which, following what has happened in regard to the limitation of armies, it is useless to try and find pretty names. France has played at Washington the exact part which Germany played of old at The Hague. It is no figure of speech to say that she has stepped into Germany's shoes."

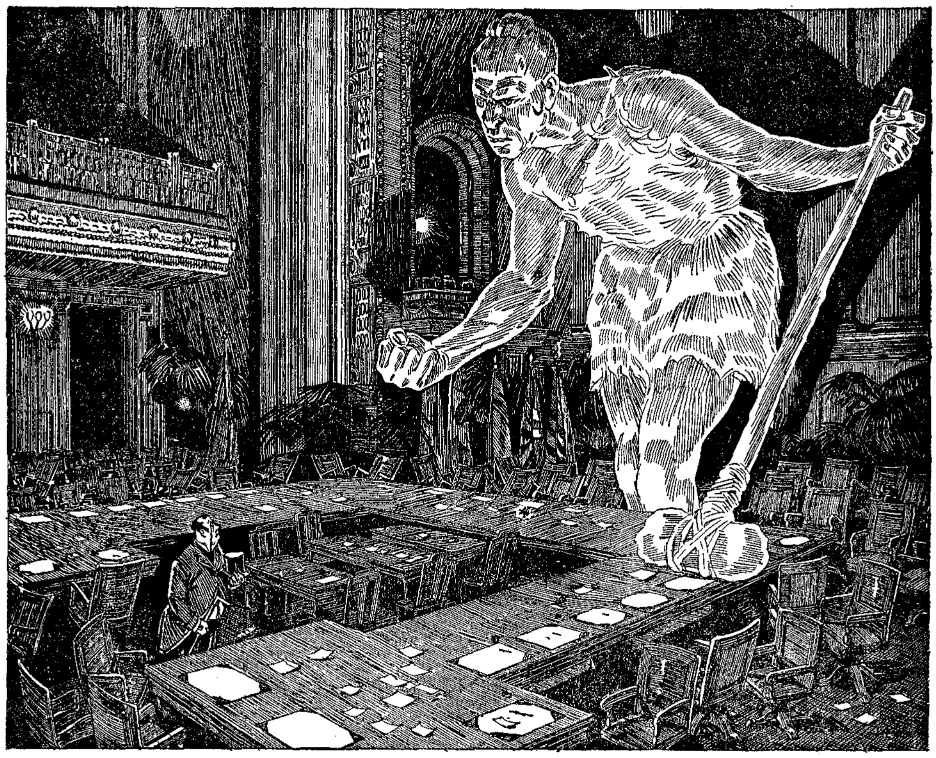
Mr. Balfour pointed out that in the event of war between France and Great Britain, the latter, not having a large army, could not strike at the heart of France; but France, employing a great navy of submarines against commerce, could destroy "the very existence" of Britain. While the American delegates did not support the British in their request for the outlawing and abolition of all submarines as instruments of war, but took a middle ground for the limitation of their numbers and the strict regulation of their use against merchant ships, the American press reflects a wide-spread hatred and distrust of the weapon made infamous by the sinking of the *Lusitania*. "If there is any more American sentiment for the submarine now than there was at the time when the *Lusitania* was sunk, will somebody kindly point it out?" remarks the St. Louis *Star*, which goes on to say:

> "The submarine drew us into the European War, killed about 100,000 American boys and cost us $25,000,000,000. It will draw us in again—any time a war is fought on so great a scale as to override neutral rights.
>
> "If we enjoy being drawn into foreign wars, enjoy having thousands of our boys killed, enjoy paying billions and billions of dollars on war debts, then of course we should perpetuate the submarine.
>
> "Or if we look at European affairs from a frankly anti-British point of view, or with intensely vindictive anti-Germanism, then also we should perpetuate the submarine. Any island may be fatally exposed to undersea attack, and Great Britain and Ireland are especially exposed because of nearness to a deeply indented continental coast. But the strategic purpose of the submarine construction program planned by France is not the overthrow of Great Britain. France desires to be independent of British influence, so that Great Britain can not interfere with any measures, military or economic, which France may desire to take against Germany. Also, of course, France wishes to control the Mediterranean so as to hold a good hand in deals relating to the Near East.
>
> "Are we warranted in supporting the French submarine program upon any such basis as that, when every other consideration of good policy and humanitarianism pleads for abolition of undersea warfare?"

"France, in her insistent demand for the submarine, is wrong, dead wrong," avers the New York *Herald*, which would "sweep these accursed things from the world once and forever." "The submarine is a sneaking, covert weapon," declares the St. Louis *Post-Dispatch*, and "its particular meat is passenger vessels, hospital ships and merchantmen." "No one but the 'naval expert' cares to defend the submarine," says the Columbus *Dispatch*, "and in this matter the heart of the masses is a more intelligent guide than the head of the 'naval expert'." The submarine is an execrated weapon—hated as no other instrument of sea warfare has ever been hated," says the Philadelphia *Public Ledger*, which reminds us that in the World War——

"The Germans sunk 12,000,000 tons of merchant shipping and a negligible amount, only, of war craft. In destroying merchant ships they slew and drowned 20,000 non-combatants and wrote some of the ugliest and cruelest chapters of the history of the sea."

In the same paper Colonel Edward M. House declares that "the submarine, like poison gas and the bombing of cities, has no place in honorable warfare," and should be eliminated by popular demand. Commenting on this plea the Milwaukee *Journal* says:



"YOU FOLKS NOWADAYS HAVE MADE A HORRID MESS OF WAR—WAR, WHICH USED TO BE A GOOD, CLEAN SPORT IN MY DAY."

—Levering in the New York *Tribune*.

"Colonel House makes the plea of a representative of civilization when he urges that America take up Mr. Balfour's suggestion that the submarine be eliminated from war. It ought to be eliminated. And he makes answer to the charge that the nation which gives up such inhuman things as poison gas puts itself at the mercy of the nation that doesn't live up to its obligations by pointing out that it was Germany's violation of Belgium that brought Great Britain into the war and Germany's submarine piracy that brought America in. Will any nation soon repeat this folly, he asks.

"The surest way to avoid submarine atrocities is to avoid war. The next surest way is not to build submarines," says the New York *Globe*. "The submarine has proved itself capable of doing only one thing supremely well, and that is the destruction of sea-borne commerce," avers the Baltimore *Sun*. "The simple truth," declares the Richmond *News Leader*, "is that unless the world agrees to abandon such weapons as submarines and gas, the collapse of our civilization, under the weight of slain millions of men, is only a question of time. If civilization is worth saving, gas and the submarine are a part of the price that must be paid." The submarine is "the assassin of the seas," says the New Haven *Journal Courier;* and in the Washington *Herald* we read:

"It is rather absurd to talk of submarines and international law with the same breath. It is as well to admit that one or the other must be abolished so far as the laws of the sea are concerned. Submarines can not, and so will not, warn, search, or seize. They will only sink. They are enemy ships of war. Armed merchantmen can sink them at sight. They can have no such right as to ships of commerce. They can not take off crews, nor passengers, nor women and children. They can not save non-contraband nor make prizes. They can only sink—without trace.

"Nor will they observe the law even as far as this might be possible. More and more the tendency would be to sink without trace, if only as reprisal. Submarines show no mercy; they would get none. But they are the one outlaw instrument of war that can be prohibited, absolutely forbidden, and make this stick.

"Airplanes are useful agents of peace, tho a peace plane may quickly become a war plane. Poison gas is a by-product of peace chemistry. No one can prohibit its discovery, nor successfully forbid the quick preparation for manufacture. The airplane and poison gas are forbears of the banefully destructive bomb, to possibly annihilate whole cities. Forbidding by international law is of itself useless. Germany broke every known prohibition of modern warfare. She would again, or another would, if there should be a war.

"But the submarines can be prohibited because their building could not be concealed. This would be but another step against war, not in its physical prevention, but as a psychological evidence of abhorrence of war, of that mental attitude which alone can prevent war and should, therefore, be encouraged in every possible way."

The New York *World* recalls the fact that the plan to sink all submarines and to abolish all submarine construction is not original with Great Britain, but was proposed by President Wilson at the Peace Conference, where the suggestion was opposed by France and allowed to die in committee. "There is no doubt where the people of this country stand—they are substantially a unit for getting rid of the submarine; they want none of it," declares Henry L. Stoddard in the New York *Evening Mail*. "The unwillingness or inability of the French Government to agree to a reduction in submarine armament is a matter of world-wide regret," remarks the New York *Globe*, which excuses France, however, and urges patience, on the ground that "a nation can not pour forth its blood and treasure, as France did, a people can not sacrifice for ideals as the French did, without suffering a tremendous reaction." *The Globe* goes on to say.

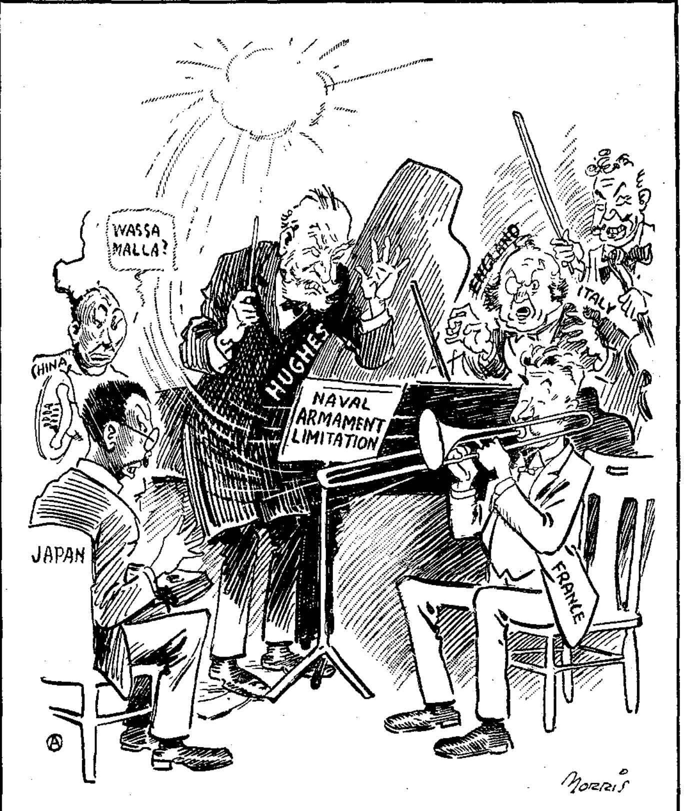
"The United States had to struggle out of the materiality of the post-civil war reconstruction period, and France will have to do likewise. It does no good to be impatient. Certainly it would be folly and crime to make the present mood of the French Government the excuse for a renewal of competitive building. If this Conference must adjourn without an agreement on the submarine question, let it be so. Another conference may be called, and by that time events, which move so swiftly and with such force, may have applied their logic to the situation. It may even soon be found that after their own native fashion the French have been merely seeking a bargain and that their naval ambitions are but a cover for other plans. Whatever may be the explanation, the world can afford to wait for France. By the grimmest sacrifice ever exacted of humanity Frenchmen have earned that."

In unqualified and enthusiastic accord with France's demands, on the other hand, are William Randolph Hearst's widely circulated papers. "Hurrah for France!" exclaims Mr. Hearst himself, in a signed editorial in his New York *American*. "Thank God," he adds piously, "there is one nation which Great Britain does not wholly dominate and whose Government she does not entirely control in her own selfish interest." "Submarines are essential to our security," declares another issue of the same paper, in which we read further:

> "The French are right about the submarines. Their position should also be the American position.
>
> "The submarine is a weapon of defense for the small nation when menaced by a large nation or a group of nations, and it is an invaluable weapon for coast defense of a great nation like the United States.
>
> "The submarine costs about one-thirtieth as much as a modern battle-ship. Small nations which can not afford to build super-dreadnoughts may build submarines and feel protected.
>
> "Britain, supreme in naval power on the sea's surface, lost 7,000,000 tons of shipping, together with cargoes, to German submarine activity during the war, and came near being starved into surrender.
>
> "Naturally Britain wishes submarines banned.
>
> "But until the seas are as free to neutral commerce in war as they are free in peace, no nation inferior in surface naval strength to Britain will dare surrender the right to build submarines without yielding also some measure of its independence."

France's official demand at the Arms Parley for more submarines, notes the New York *Times*, while "not logical," does "reflect French popular sentiment." In France, it reports, "the naval craze of the hour is submarines—and French Ministers think in terms of legislative majorities." The French argument as laid before the Conference by Admiral de Bon is summarized in *The Times* as follows:

> "1. The submarine is effective as an instrument of defense.
>
> "2. It had proven its worth as a means of attack against war-ships as in the protection of coasts.
>
> "3. That which caused terror in the World War was not that the Germans made submarine attacks on the merchant craft of their enemies, but that they respected neither the neutral flag nor steamers loaded with non-combatants.
>
> "4. The submarine has the right to figure as an integral part of the naval forces.
>
> "5. That the 90,000 tons of submarines proposed by Mr. Hughes as the maximum for the United States and Great Britain *is the minimum* submarine strength any *important* naval power should have. Consequently France should have at least 90,000 tons."

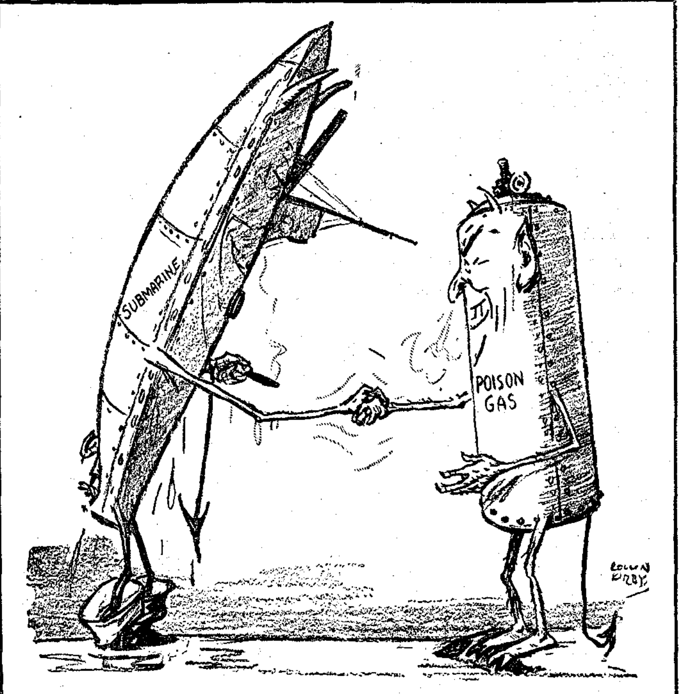


THE BUM NOTE.

—Morris for the George Matthews Adams Service.

"France's renunciation at Washington does not seem to have been sufficiently understood or appreciated by her friends, who have reserved for themselves the domination of the seas, and perhaps thereby of the world," declares the Paris *Temps*, which sums up France's case as follows:

> "She has renounced the past, in which, with England, she was a part of the most glorious sea history of the world, voluntarily lowering herself to a maritime power of the second order.
>
> "France put forward at Washington a claim, which, in the minds of her plenipotentiaries, was purely theoretical, demanding that, when her financial condition permitted, she should take a fitting place in the consortium of great naval powers, which base sea peace on their armored forces, and she sacrificed the demand in the interests of the peace of the world.
>
> "Can she agree to further sacrifices? The whole country is behind the Parliament and the Government on this point. She can not abandon the right to defend herself. If some day soon we have to transport once more our Algerian and Moroccan divisions to the Rhine, it will be under the protection of our dreadnoughts, light cruisers and submarines."



"WE'RE TOO MUCH FOR 'EM."

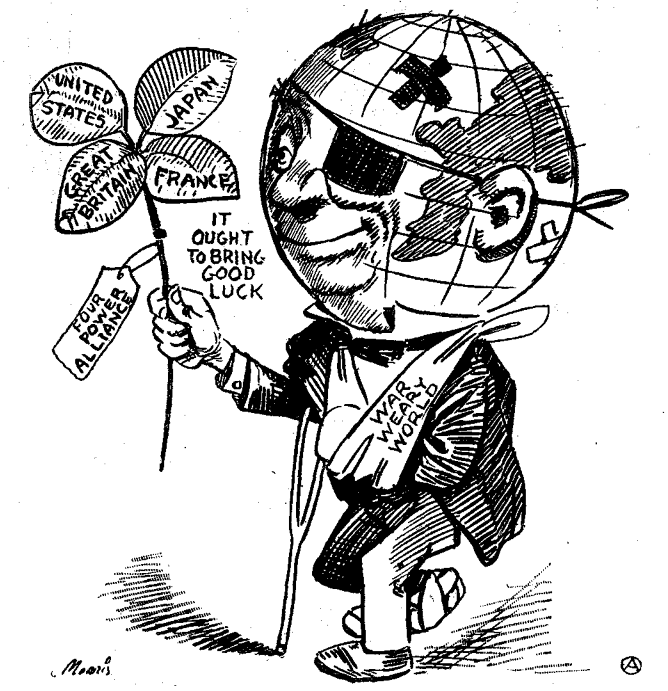
—Kirby in the New York *World.*

Both the abolition and reduction of submarines being thus blocked, for the present at least, Elihu Root submitted to the Conference a resolution to regulate their use against merchant vessels. It reads in part as follows:

> "(1) A merchant vessel must be ordered to stop for visit and search to determine its character before it can be captured. A merchant vessel must not be attacked unless it refuses to stop for visit and search after warning. A merchant vessel must not be destroyed unless the crew and passengers have been first placed in safety.
>
> "(2) Belligerent submarines are not under any circumstances exempt from the universal rules above stated; and if a submarine can not capture a merchant vessel in conformity with these rules the existing law of nations requires it to desist from attack and from capture and to permit the merchant vessel to proceed unmolested. . . .
>
> "(3) The signatory Powers, desiring to insure the enforcement of the humane rules declared by them with respect to the prohibition of the use of submarines in warfare, further declare that any person in the service of any of the Powers adopting these rules who shall violate any of the rules thus adopted, whether or not such person is under orders of a governmental superior, shall be deemed to have violated the laws of war, and shall be liable to *trial and punishment* as if for an act of piracy, and may be brought to trial before the civil or military authorities of any such Powers within the jurisdiction of which he may be found."

JAPAN AS ITS OWN ISLAND

THE WAR TAUGHT US much about geography; treaty-making promises to teach us even more. When Senator Lodge introduced the Four-Power Treaty he delivered a flowery explanatory address in which he described in detail the beauties of nearly all of the islands in the Pacific so minutely that one irreverent correspondent dubbed the speech, "The Cruise of the *Kawa*." But this is a trivial matter compared with the acute political issue which has arisen because our highest governmental authorities can not agree on the delicate geographical point as to whether Japan is one of its own islands. When the Four-Power Treaty drawn up at Washington was first published it seemed to be generally understood among press correspondents, editors and the newspaper-reading public that the agreement between the four signatory Powers "to respect their rights in relation to their insular possessions and insular dominions in the regions of the Pacific Ocean" did not apply to the islands which comprise the Japanese homeland. And so thought President Harding, as he told the newspaper correspondents at 1 P.M. on December 20. At 7 P.M. the President announced that he had learned that the delegates at the Conference understood the phrase just the other way, to include said homeland. Mr. Harding dismisses this as a simple matter of personal misinterpretation, but it has, the Troy *Record* (Ind.) declares, "furnished a political opening large enough for Senator Borah and his irreconcilable colleagues to push through with a steam-roller, and they are preparing to make the most of their opportunity." And the same assertion, differently exprest, may be found in the columns of the New York *World* (Dem.), New York *Tribune*, (Rep.), Newark *News* (Ind.), Baltimore *Evening Sun* (Dem.), Philadelphia *Public Ledger* (Ind.), and Louisville *Courier-Journal* (Dem.). The fate of the treaty in the Senate is now problematical, the Brooklyn *Citizen* (Dem.) is convinced; "if it is ratified it will be only with reservations which will leave this country under no moral obligation to send its sons to the defense of Japan against a strong and revived Russia." This question of interpretation, writes a Boston *Transcript* (Rep.) correspondent, "may not jeopardize the ultimate ratification of the treaty, but it will prolong the debate in the Senate." It has, says another journalistic watcher at Washington, "cast the first real cloud on what have hitherto been the unqualifiedly hopeful prospects of the Conference."



THE FOUR-LEAF CLOVER.

—Morris for the George Matthew Adams Service.

Upon the back of the disarmament proposition, says Senator Reed (Dem., Mo.), is now to be "loaded a quadruple alliance made for the protection of the interests of Great Britain and Japan in the Orient," and the United States is to be compelled "to underwrite in the blood of its sons the avarice and ambition of Great Britain and Japan in Pacific waters." Senator Borah, now the head and front of the opposition to the treaty, observed the other day in the Senate that "it took six months to wake the people up to the iniquities of the League, but they are already aroused against the perils and dangers of the Four-Power Alliance." And in a Washington dispatch to the Hearst papers we find the significant warning that with some 25 Democrats being lined up against ratification in the Senate and "with 64 votes required for ratification, it would need less than a dozen Republican votes to defeat the treaty."

Yet it might as well be noted right here that the friends of the treaty by no means admit that all is lost. There will be loud and long protest in the Senate, agrees the Brooklyn *Eagle* (Dem.), "the irreconcilables will not be quickly suppress, but after they have been allowed a reasonable leeway in debate, a combination of rational Republicans with rational Democrats can bring their obstruction to an end." United Press reports from Washington that a nationwide fight against the treaty is under way are taken with a generous allowance of salt by the Grand Rapids *Herald*. It hears that the women's clubs are to be exploited in this campaign, but it thinks that that is just the place where the foes of a peace treaty are likely to find hard sledding. "The women of America will be slow to rally against such standards and objectives and aspirations and God-blessed achievements." Then, "anti-Japanese sentiment on the Pacific Coast is to be mobilized against the treaty," whereupon *The Herald* asks:

> "What, pray, is there in the Four-Power pact to invite hostility from these sources? Is it possible that even the most rabid anti-Jap jingo-American would conceive our own position safer in the Pacific if we faced a militant and uncurbed Mikado supported by the British Empire and an Anglo-Jap Alliance, than if we faced a lonesome and isolated Mikado who, under the new treaty, could plague us summarily only as he became a palpable international outlaw?"

Finally, Democrats "are being urged to fight the treaty on the theory that if the Republicans could sweep the nation by seven million on an anti-League platform, the Democrats ought to be able to sweep it by opposing the present treaty." This, the Michigan editor comments, "is poor logic and worse politics":

> "In the first place, there is no inimical parallel between the old League and the new Entente. In the second place, that 7,000,000 majority in the 'solemn referendum' was not a mandate against all international fraternity; it was a mandate against American subservience to international verdict and control in matters of essential self-determination—and there isn't a shred of that sort of emasculation left in the Four-Power pact. In the third place, one of the negotiators of the new treaty is Senator Oscar Underwood, acknowledged Democratic leader, and one of its first endorsers is Senator Gilbert Hitchcock, ranking Democratic member of the Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs. It is rather difficult to anticipate successful partizan rebellion in the face of such partizan approval.
>
> "The line-up is not impressive. On the contrary, the paucity of available material and the even greater paucity of creditable argument are merely confirmatory of the expectation that the United States Senate and the American People will wholeheartedly endorse this mighty adventure."

And in this connection it might be well to call attention to the formidable array of newspapers of various shades of political belief which call in no uncertain terms for the ratification of the Four-Power Treaty. Among them we notice the Boston *Herald*

(Rep.), Springfield *Republican* (Ind.), Manchester *Union* (Rep.), New York *Tribune* (Rep.), *Times* (Dem.), *World* (Dem.), and *Daily News* (Ind.), Philadelphia *Public Ledger* (Ind.), the weekly *National Republican* (Washington, D. C.), the Baltimore *American* (Rep.), Richmond *Times-Dispatch* (Dem.), Norfolk *Ledger-Dispatch* (Dem.), Nashville *Banner* (Dem.), Indianapolis *News* (Ind.), Kansas City *Star* (Ind.), and San Francisco *Bulletin* (Ind.).

Since so much depends upon the precise phraseology of the Four-Power Treaty, readers who have recent copies of the LITERARY DIGEST at hand should turn back to the issue of December 24 in which the treaty appeared in full. As Mr. E. L. James notes in his correspondence to the New York *Times*, "it is true that the inclusion of Japan is not to be gathered directly from the terms of the treaty," and "it is also true that in his speech of presentation, Senator Lodge of the American delegation did not mention Japan proper, altho he reviewed most of the islands in the Pacific." But Mr. Charles Michelson asserts categorically in the New York *World* "that inquiry was made of what was indicated as the highest available American authority on the subject and the answer was unqualifiedly that the treaty certainly covered the homeland of Japan." According to Frederick Palmer, who writes for the New York *Evening Post*, it was Senator Lodge who made for the American delegation the draft of the treaty "which practically prevailed in its original form." Senator Lodge is also spoken of in the dispatches as the "liaison officer" between the White House and the American delegation. Papers representing both parties agree that it is unfortunate that there should have been such secrecy on the part of the American delegates. The Democratic New York *World* speaks of the President as having been "tricked." "Injudicious reticence" is the milder phrase of the Springfield *Republican*. The Philadelphia *Record* (Dem.) pays its respects to Senator Lodge as "the reputed author" of the "slovenly language used in the treaty." As we read:

> "When it is remembered that that article contains only six lines, it becomes remarkable for the errors and ambiguities which it contains. It speaks of the high parties agreeing 'as between themselves,' when 'among' should have been used. The word 'between,' when properly applied, refers to *only* two parties, *not* to an *indefinite* number. Again, these contracting Powers are to respect 'their rights,' etc., when it is clear that what is meant is that they are to respect one another's rights. Add to these grammatical solecisms the careless use of the words 'insular possessions' and 'insular dominions,' and it is no wonder the President and a good many other persons failed to grasp its exact meaning."

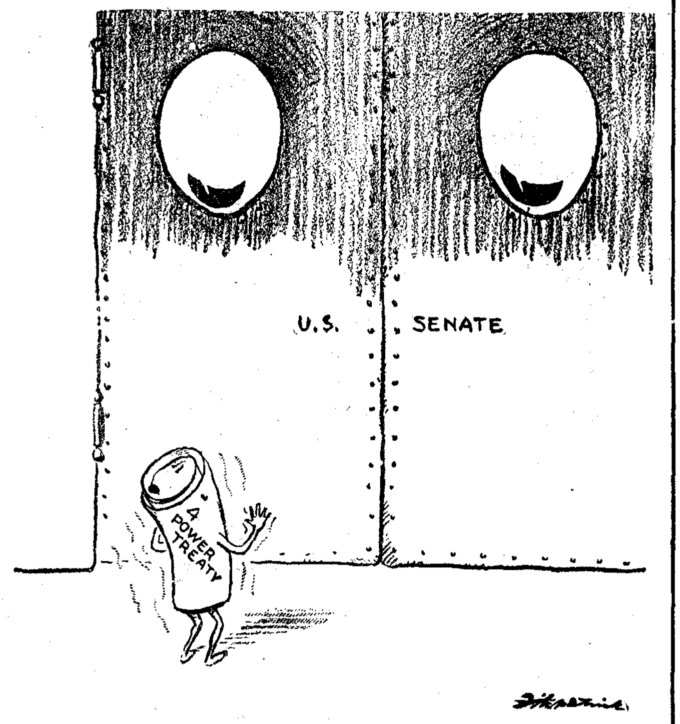
After remarking on these things, *The Record* comes to the conclusion that the treaty as at present framed is useless for all practical purposes. Arguing from a different angle, Mr. Hearst's New York *American* contends that the treaty is not merely useless, but actually harmful. If it really refers to Japan proper then in case a combination of China, Russia and Germany were ever to attack Japan "we as one of the Four Powers signing will be expected to fight on Japan's side," and, asks Mr. Brisbane, "how does that suit you?" Another editorial writer in *The American* concludes a long discussion of the treaty by declaring his opinion that "the Washington Conference threatens to become as dangerous to American peace, liberty and independence as the decisions of the Versailles Conference, which were rejected by a majority of seven million Americans."

But the Republican St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, Springfield *Union* and Manchester *Union* agree that there is no occasion for all the excitement over the meaning of the Four-Power Treaty. As the last-named paper explains:

> "What is actually promised, is that we shall respect Japan's rights in Japan, just as we shall respect Australia's rights in Australia, both being sizable insular possessions or dominions, just as Japan promises to respect our rights in the sizable Philippines.
>
> "And, as the intrusion of some hypothetical militant fifth Power would very likely be the concern of no one alone of the parties to this treaty, we all promise to consult one another as to measures of defense in such an event.
>
> "Come—as a personal matter, isn't something like this just about what we men in the street would like to do? To be sure Japan, being territorially insular, must be included in the promise, especially as it is imperative that Australia should be. In neither case is there a promise to defend—there is a promise to respect. There is no secret, subterfuge, or hidden implication anywhere in the agreement, and to raise an issue over an alleged pledge to defend Japan in her homeland is to make it out of whole cloth woven on the loom of fancy."

Nor is the Philadelphia *Evening Bulletin* (Rep.) particularly concerned about the talk of "secrecy" and "trickery"—

> "It is apparent now that the American delegates, representing the Senate, as well as the Department of State, are not subject to executive dictation, and that the President is actually keeping hands off, while a treaty-making agency, notably representative of Senate—of both parties—and of the nation, is carrying on to achievement the greatest wish that is in the American heart, the making of peace."



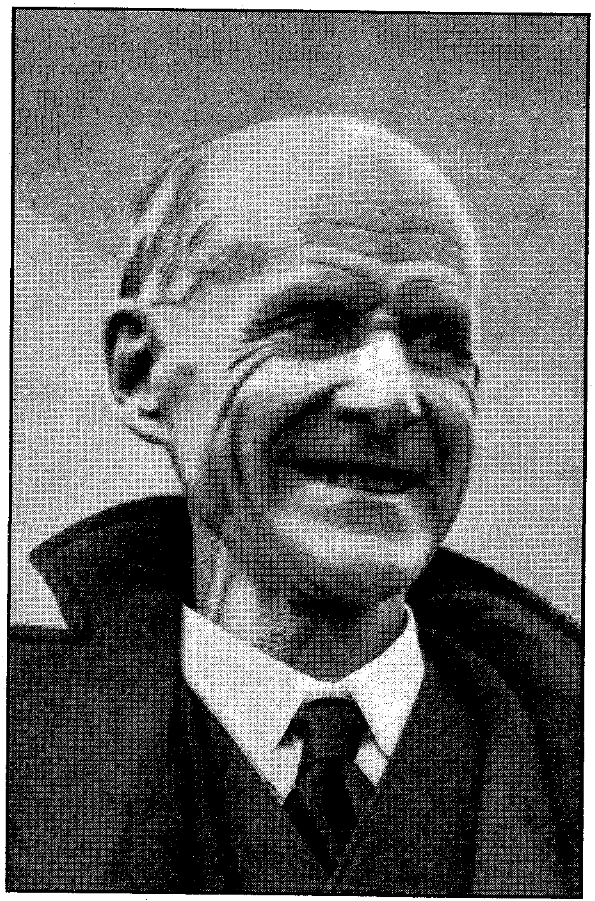
—Fitzpatrick in the St. Louis *Post-Dispatch*.

That the Four-Power Treaty may possibly be modified by an exchange of notes between the United States and Japan covering the point which has been responsible for so much argument, is asserted by a Washington correspondent of the New York *Times*. A Brooklyn *Eagle* correspondent hears that "there is a strong and growing opposition in Japan to having the treaty cover their mainland, on the ground that it involves an assumption that the Japanese are a weaker people, who require some special consideration from other Powers." An official statement from the Japanese Government repudiating the application of the treaty to the Japanese homeland would, in the editorial opinion of *The Eagle*, confine the treaty "within limits agreeable to all except a handful of irreconcilables in the Senate. Japan would then expect from us no more than we expect from Japan, that is, a pledge of joint action in conference for the protection of colonial possessions in the Pacific."

Finally, in view of the phraseology of the Four-Power Treaty, the Toledo *Blade* wonders if, after all, it has not been "made public merely as a test balloon to see the direction of public opinion, to draw the lightning of criticism, to obtain the experience upon which to base and formulate the treaties yet to be made."

DEBS FREE

"SOMEBODY IN WASHINGTON," hints the New York *Herald*, "may know exactly why Eugene V. Debs was released from prison, but the American people are very much in the dark about it." "Certainly the majority will not approve this commutation," agrees the New York *Times*, which believes that "a shallow, howling, whining minority has had its way" in securing Executive clemency for the Socialist leader and former Presidential nominee. Other editors, however, say that the country may well be thankful that President Harding did not pardon Debs, but commuted his sentence. This action, they point out, while giving him freedom, does not restore him to citizenship. Unless this is done before the next Presidential election, "the Socialist party will have to look around for another candidate," suggests the Brooklyn *Citizen*.



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"NOT ENTITLED TO FREEDOM."

Eugene V. Debs declares he is "not entitled to freedom while a single 'political' prisoner remains behind prison bars." So, with his 10-year sentence commuted by President Harding, he will work for their freedom and for the abolition of war.

Such well-known papers as the Baltimore *News*, the New York *Tribune*, the Brooklyn *Eagle*, the Washington *Star*, the Boston *Post*, the New York *Evening World*, the Springfield *Republican*, the Philadelphia *Public Ledger*, the New York *Evening Post*, the Buffalo *Commercial*, the Newark *News*, the Chicago *Evening Post*, the New Haven *Journal-Courier* and the Baltimore *Sun* believe that President Harding's action in releasing Debs from prison will meet with general commendation. There were released at the same time, on Christmas Day, it should be added, twenty-three other prisoners held for violation of war-time laws, some of whom are to be deported, leaving 135 political prisoners still in jail. Five ex-soldiers serving life sentences were pardoned by the President and restored to citizenship.

While the above-named papers believe that no good purpose was being served in longer keeping Debs in jail, where he had served 32 months of a 10-year sentence, they all unite in condemning his obstructionist activities during the early part of the war. "No matter what was the motive, the effort to tie the nation's hands at the moment when it was in the greatest peril was a crime," declares the Baltimore *News*. "If the advice of Debs had been followed in this and other Allied countries, the German flag would be floating over the Capitol at Washington," asserts the New York *Tribune*. Now, however, observes the Buffalo *Commercial*, "the war is over. The state of unrest which prevailed for months afterward is no longer alarming. The worst of the disturbers still remain in prison." And, as the New York *Evening Post* puts it, "nothing is to be gained by further punishment of those who fell foul of war-time legislation." "Debs has served enough of his sentence to become a warning to others," believes the Brooklyn *Eagle*, and in this opinion practically all the above-named papers agree.

"Debs was not working for Germany," we are reminded by the Duluth *Herald*. "Most of those who worked for the enemy already have been released," recalls this paper. "And even if Debs is an enemy of society, he is a gallant enemy," concedes the Philadelphia *Public Ledger*—

> "When other preachers of sedition were running like hares from their own words, seeking any available loophole of technicality, Debs never cringed, whined or pleaded. Neither was he insolent and defiant, as they all become the moment their personal danger passed. Arraigned in court, he refused to hide behind technicalities or to snarl at the Court; he announced his guilt and his readiness to accept his punishment; and he did this without bravado, but with dignity.
>
> "Certainly he was guilty, as he said, but the public mind had never been easy about his continuance in prison for his few remaining years."

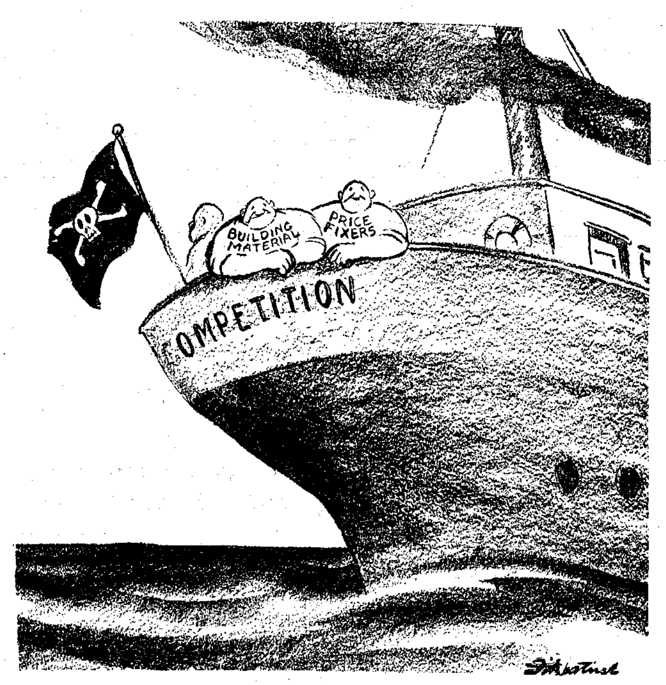
Less sympathy, however, is felt by some other papers. "There has been a disposition to minimize Debs's crime on the ground that it was 'political,'" observes the Indianapolis *News*. "So it was, but so is treason a political crime, yet men have been hanged for it." In fact, notes the New York *Evening World*, "several of the prisoners freed with Debs were fortunate not to have faced a firing-squad." Declaring that "the American people would like to know why Debs was released," the New York *Herald* goes on:

> "Surely Debs was not wrongfully convicted. We have never heard a denial, from Debs or any of his supporters, that he was guilty of violating the Espionage Act, of attempting to obstruct recruiting, of seeking to incite insubordination and disloyalty in the Army—in short, of doing all he could to injure the United States at a time when such action was tantamount to aiding the enemies of the United States.
>
> "Surely Debs was not in the same class with prisoners who have been freed because of broken health. When he came out of prison his friends congratulated him on his fine appearance.
>
> "Has Debs had a change of heart? There is no evidence of it. He has *spoken no word of regret for what he did*. He has uttered no assurance that if he had again the opportunity of which he took evil advantage he would not do exactly what he did in America's time of peril.
>
> "In some quarters the release of Debs was referred to as if it was merely incidental to general amnesty. But there has been no general amnesty. There could be none unless the Government had released the men who are in prison for purely military offenses as well as those who are there for political offenses. . . .
>
> "Debs . . . is free! His personal charm is dwelt upon by his admirers, as if that worked to mitigate his crime. Benedict Arnold had all that personal charm and, besides, a genuine grievance; but he is not forgiven."

"The release of Debs is a slap in the face for the mothers whose sons lie in the sacred soil of France, and for every soldier who followed the nation's colors in the World War," maintains the Richmond *Times-Dispatch*. "There is no commutation of sentence for the young men who gave their lives in their country's service," the New York *Times* reminds us; and a telegram to the DIGEST from San Francisco, signed "Two Gassed Soldiers," reads: "Debs released. Send our greetings to Bergdoll."

TO KEEP "OPEN COMPETITION" OPEN

A HARD BLOW at the principle of "open-price" associations, whose members exchange information about prices, is believed to be delivered by the Supreme Court opinion declaring the "open competition" plan of the American Hardwood Manufacturers' Association to be in restraint of trade, in violation of the Sherman Act. The case is of wide interest, the press agree, because, inferentially, it interests a great number of business associations engaging in somewhat the same exchange of information as that disseminated by the hardwood association. What will be the effect upon the custom of comparing and exchanging reports and bulletins concerning prices, stocks, and production? Is the exchange of business information illegal, they ask, and must it cease when even the Government is issuing market reports and the Department of Commerce is preparing trade reports based on the information collected by business associations? And will the decision form the basis for the Government's policy toward hundreds of associations maintained by various industries to exchange all sorts of trade information?



ANOTHER MISSING SHIP.

—Fitzpatrick in the St. Louis *Post-Dispatch.*

Justice Brandeis, who, with Justices Holmes and McKenna, dissented from the majority, sees the association as a combination, but asserts that no evidence has been adduced to show that it was in restraint of trade or resorted to actual price-fixing. Justice Holmes insists that the exchange of market information is not unlawful, and that restraint of trade must be proved, rather than the mere collection and distribution of information regarding prices and production. "The obvious facts, however," declares the New York *Herald,* "are that the 365 hardwood manufacturers in the Association, representing one-third of the business in the United States, did keep up prices by disseminating information which led purchasers to believe that hardwood timber was becoming scarce, and that there was an arrangement to control production." The Government charged that the Association "combined and conspired to eliminate competition among themselves, and to enhance their selling prices." "The Association plan worked this way," explains the Newark *News:*

> "Each of the 365 members had to make a daily and detailed report of sales, a daily shipping report, a monthly production report, a monthly stock report and furnish price lists and inspection reports. Then the statistician-secretary of the Association, with ample clerical assistance, compiled and distributed a monthly detailed production summary, a voluminous weekly sales report, including detailed prices and names of buyers; a monthly stock report, virtually an inventory of the stock of each member; a monthly summary of price lists of each member, and a monthly letter on changes of conditions and an analysis of the market. Meetings were held monthly by participants in the plan to 'afford opportunity for discussion of all subjects of interest for members.' "

Does such a plan make for genuine competition? Said Justice Clarke, in delivering the majority decision:

> "Genuine competitors do not make daily, weekly and monthly reports of the minutest details of their business to their rivals as the defendants did; they do not contract, as was done here, to submit their books to the discretionary audit and their stocks to the discretionary inspection of their rivals for the purpose of successfully competing with them, and they do not submit the details of their business to the analysis of an expert jointly employed and obtain from him a 'harmonized' estimate of the market as it is, and as in his specially and confidentially informed judgment it promises to be. . . .
>
> "To pronounce such abnormal conduct on the part of 365 natural competitors, controlling one-third of the trade of the country in a prime necessity, a 'new form of competition' and not an old form of combination in restraint of trade, as it so plainly is, would be for this Court to confess itself blinded by words and forms to realities which men in general very plainly see and understand and condemn as an old evil in a new dress and with a new name. . . .
>
> "It is futile to argue that the purpose of the 'plan' was simply to furnish those engaged in this industry, with widely scattered units, the equivalent of such information as is contained in the newspaper and Government publications with respect to the market for commodities sold on boards of trade or stock exchanges. One distinguishing and sufficient difference is that the published reports go to both seller and buyer, but these reports go to the seller only; and another is that there is no skilled interpreter of the published reports, such as we have in this case, to insistently recommend harmony of action likely to prove profitable in proportion as it is unitedly pursued.
>
> "Convinced, as we are, that the purpose and effect of the activities of the 'open competition plan,' here under discussion, were to restrict competition and thereby restrain interstate commerce in the manufacture and sale of hardwood lumber by concerted action in curtailing production and in increasing prices, we agree with the District Court that it constituted a combination and conspiracy in restraint of interstate commerce within the meaning of the Anti-trust Act of 1890."

Thus the highest Court in the land sustains the United States District Court of Western Tennessee, which issued in the spring of 1920 a permanent injunction restraining the Hardwood Association from entering into further agreements and distributing statistical information. "Yet this object of the Association is an admirable one," maintains the New York *Evening Post,* "if the statistics are rightly employed they can be an instrument to further competition and reduce profiteering."

"The decision of the Supreme Court regarding the Hardwood Manufacturers' Association shows how far that distinguished body is out of harmony with current business tendencies and needs," rather tartly observes the New York *Journal of Commerce.* For, remarks another editor, "the same Government that brought charges against the Association is proposing to help farmers adopt a cooperative selling plan which would enable them to maintain higher prices for their products." "There are obvious advantages to the trade in such an organization as the hardwood manufacturers have effected," believes the Duluth *Herald*—

> "But how to get the advantages of such association, which are for the public benefit when rightly used, without risking the danger that the public will be exploited by a conspiracy to impose unfair prices, is a puzzle that nobody has yet solved. Nor is it brought any nearer solution by this decision."

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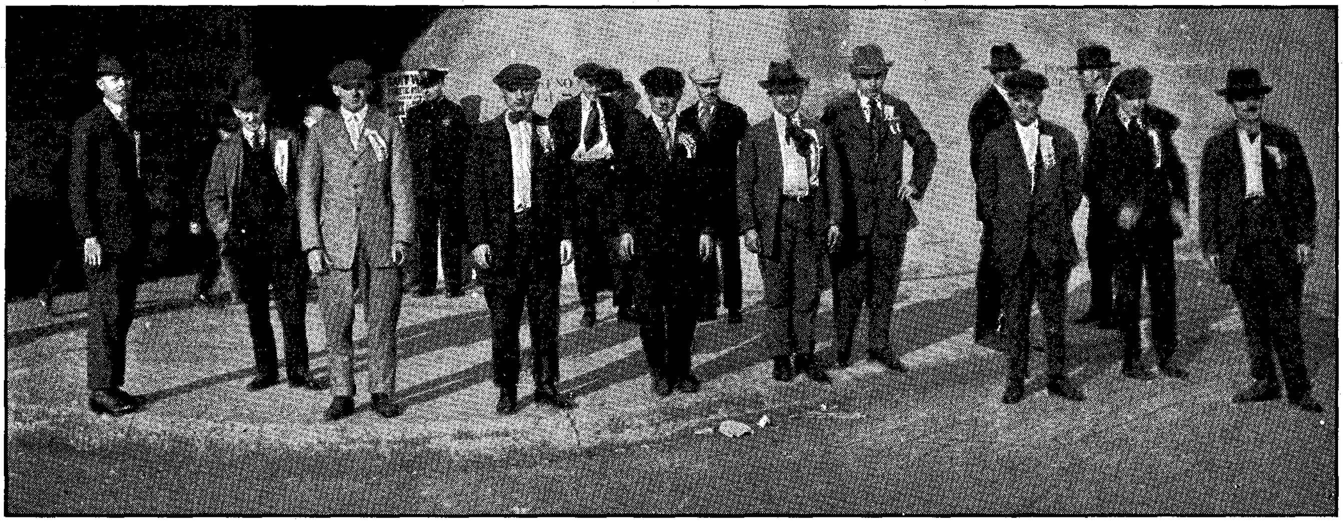


PICKETS BLOCKING THE ROAD TO THE STEEL PLANT AT GARY, INDIANA.

This form of picketing is now outlawed by the Supreme Court. The photograph was taken during the great steel strike of 1919.

WHEN PICKETING IS ILLEGAL

TWO SUPREME COURT DECISIONS on the controversial question of picketing—watching and parading before manufacturing plants and business establishments, and accosting their employees—can not be said to have been Christmas presents to organized labor. In fact, says Arthur Brisbane in the New York *American*, the first, rendered early in December, "hamstrings union labor." The second opinion, handed down two weeks later in a five to four verdict of the justices, "is directly in line with the previous opinion," notes another paper, for "it narrows the limits within which picketing will be allowed." In the first instance, approximately two thousand Illinois foundry employees went on a strike, and established a force of pickets around the plant. The company obtained a court injunction against the pickets, but the strikers won on an appeal, and the case finally reached the Supreme Court. Here Chief Justice Taft drew a sharp line between peaceful persuasion by picketers and the employment of force to interfere with the free passage of workers to and from any plant; group picketing is held to be inconsistent with peaceful persuasion. Pickets, in other words, must not obstruct workers.

In the second, or Arizona decision, the Supreme Court goes farther in the same direction. Union leaders, it seems, ordered a strike in a Bisbee restaurant, and then placed pickets outside the place of business. Patrons of the place had to either run the gantlet of a form of intimidation—or dine elsewhere. The majority, it is said, preferred the path of peace, even if it led to another restaurant, with the result that the volume of business done by the picketed restaurant fell to one-fourth its original amount. Since an Arizona statute prohibits the issuance of injunctions by courts in picketing cases during labor disputes, and as the Arizona Supreme Court refused an injunction, the proprietor applied to the United States Supreme Court for "equal protection under the law, and prohibition against the taking of property without due process of law." For, he argued, his business was his property, and the picketers were taking it away from him. The United States Supreme Court now reverses the State Supreme Court's decision regarding an injunction against picketing, and holds that the Arizona measure violates the Federal Constitution by taking property without due process of law and by failure to give equal protection to all. Said Chief Justice Taft in the opinion of the majority:

> "The real question here is, were the means used illegal? The patroling of defendants immediately in front of the restaurant on the main street and within five feet of plaintiffs' premises continuously during business hours, with the banners announcing plaintiffs' unfairness; the attendance by the picketers at the entrance to the restaurant and their insistent and loud appeals all day long; the constant circulation by them of the libels and epithets applied to employees, plaintiffs and customers, and the threats of injurious consequences to future customers, all linked together in a campaign were an unlawful annoyance and a hurtful nuisance in respect of the free access to the plaintiffs' place of business.
>
> "No wonder that a business of $50,000 was reduced to only one-fourth of its former extent. Violence could not have been more effective. It was moral coercion by illegal annoyance and obstruction, and it was thus plainly a conspiracy.
>
> "A law which operates to make lawful such a wrong as is described in plaintiffs' complaint deprives the owner of the business and the premises of his property without due process, and can not be held valid under the Fourteenth Amendment."

The Illinois and Arizona decisions, believes the Buffalo *Commercial*, "will put an end to a practise that was as odious as it was intolerable and disgraceful." "It takes the bullets out of the picketer's cartridges, and virtually puts an end to picketing by union labor," adds this paper.

"The courts have generally held that peaceful picketing is legal and that the other kind is not; the difficulty has been to draw a line between the two," we are reminded by the New York *Globe*. In the Arizona case, observes the Providence *Journal*, "the picketing was craftily contrived so that criminal violence was not indulged in, but it was far from peaceful." "The real truth," asserts the Brooklyn *Citizen*, "is that 'peaceful picketing' like 'peaceful penetration,' is an illusion." The two recent Supreme Court decisions, however, have changed all this, declare several editors. As the *Wall Street Journal* agrees regarding the Arizona decision:

> "The right to conduct a business or earn a living is a property right, and the Constitution protects every man in it. To deprive him of it is a wrong, no matter whether it be done with a bludgeon or by abuse and threats.
>
> "Every man is entitled to equal protection of the law. He holds his life and his property under the sanction of that law. When the Arizona statute sought to take away the protection of the law from those rights, it violated a principle that has come down from Magna Carta."

But labor men regard this ruling as "one more decision placing property rights above human rights," notes the Socialist New York *Call*. "The first Supreme Court decision is an interesting play upon words that may mean anything or nothing," maintains *The Call*; "the second, or Arizona, decision is merely an instance where five eminent men in Washington prevail over four other eminent men in that city and the eminent men in the Arizona legislature."

TOPICS IN BRIEF

JOHN BARLEYCORN will not give up the sip.—*Greenville Piedmont.*

HURRAH! The dogs of war have all been disposed of but details.—*Manila Bulletin.*

WE don't agree with the statement that prohibition is a joke; it's a business.—*Columbia Record.*

A MORATORIUM is what results when an implacable creditor meets an unpayable debt.—*Boston Herald.*

THERE is so much propaganda we don't know whether the Russians are tottering or tittering.—*Columbia Record.*

WHAT stunned those delegates, probably, was the proposition to prevent war by agreeing to scrap.—*Manila Bulletin.*

THE League of Nations is disposed to show some regret that the general idea of world peace could not be copyrighted.—*Washington Star.*

THE Mexicans have discovered that they can kill us off quicker by selling us booze than by insurrecting all the time.—*Columbia Record.*

SECRETARY MELLON has made it possible to buy a $25 thrift bond for $20, but he does not advise where the $20 may be procured.—*Pittsburgh Gazette-Times.*

THERE is a bill in the House that may limit the purchase of luxuries. Incidentally there are bills being presented in lots of other houses that may have the same effect.—*Manila Bulletin.*

GENERAL WOOD reports that the Philippines are not yet ready for independence. King George III felt the same way about his American colonies back in 1776.—*Nashville Southern Lumberman.*

WE gather from the various outgivings of her diplomats that China regards the disarmament conference as something that is intended to bring orders out of chaos.—*Labor* (Washington, D. C.)

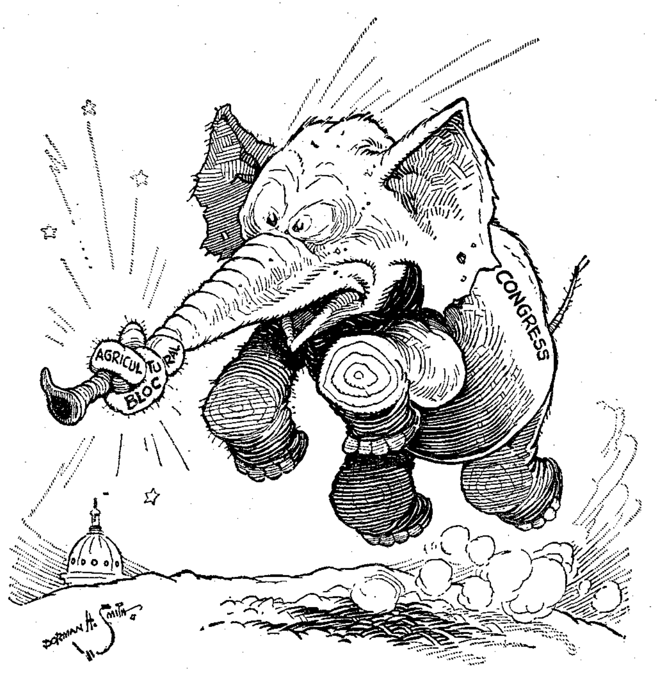
MR. H. G. WELLS makes the remarkable discovery that "out of the conference the world will have either peace or war." The sagacity of that Wells person is truly astounding.—*Nashville Tennessean.*

SECRETARY OF WAR WEEKS announces that he is in favor of conscripting every man in the United States from 18 to 60 years of age in the "next war." This is an appropriate time to announce also that Secretary Weeks is just 61 years old.—*New York Call.*

ANYONE needing a battleship for private use should be interested in the announcement of the government that several will be offered for sale to the highest bidder.—*Pittsburgh Gazette-Times.*

HIDES that were 18 cents a foot in 1914 and 56 cents a foot in 1920 are now 17 cents a foot—but unfortunately the shoe men haven't heard of it, so buying shoes costs us just as much a foot as ever. —*American Lumberman* (Chicago).

ANOTHER feature of the general situation which is not without its gently humorous aspect is the way we Republicans go out nearly every day and pick up another little piece of a Wilson policy and then assume an air as if of course we had always had it. — *Columbus (Ohio) State Journal.*



A KNOTTY PROBLEM, AS IT WERE.

—Smith in the *Jersey Journal.*

THE stir in Ulster is pronounced.—*Washington Post.*

WASHINGTON version: Discussion is the better part of valor. —*Brooklyn Eagle.*

SUCCESS is getting what you want; happiness is wanting what you get.—*New York American.*

EVIDENTLY Germany expects to find solace in the philosophy of can't.—*Norfolk Virginian-Pilot.*

WHEN they cost $40,000,000 we know why they call 'em "capital ships."—*Columbia Record.*

LOOKS as if the dogs of war were going to have their puppies drowned.—*Chicago Journal of Commerce.*

IT is proposed to give Germany additional time in which to pay it with promises.—*Boston Transcript.*

ABOUT all a reasonable pedestrian can hope for now is to be injured only slightly.—*Ohio State Journal.*

COUNTRIES would not be so anxious to enter war if it was operated on the pay-as-you-enter plan.—*Asheville Times.*

"MYRIAD New Uses for Corn," says the LITERARY DIGEST. But the revenue men are getting stricter.—*Chicago Journal of Commerce.*

As near as we can figure out China is a "problem" of the same kind that a building is which burglars intend to rob.—*New York Call.*

MUCH of Lloyd George's success is due to his wisdom in living in an age when there is nobody to take his place.—*New York Evening Telegram.*

PRIVACY is the one cheapest thing to-day. Put one nickel in the telephone-booth slot and you're cut off from the world.—*New York American.*

IT will be difficult for the Big Four to respect each other's rights in the Pacific, unless they can forget how they were acquired.—*Norfolk Virginian-Pilot.*

GERMANY appears to be suffering between fear lest she can not pay the January and February indemnity instalments and that she will have to.—*Pittsburgh Gazette-Times.*

MUCH is summed up in George Gavan Duffy's words in the Dail on ratification of the treaty: "My heart is with those opposing it, but my reason is against them." — *Springfield Republican.*

SOMETIMES it looks like Mr. Hughes really ought to let Warren have a peek at our foreign policy.—*Dallas News.*

"LAST night I got several magazines and a dish of nuts and sat by the fire and ate them," said an Emporia college girl the other day. And the *Emporia Gazette* calls it a literary digest.—*Kansas City Star.*

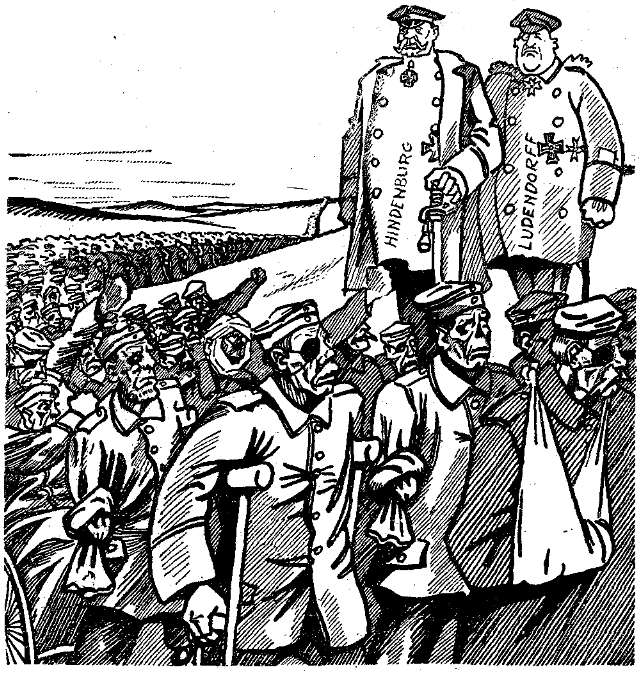
A GOOD many of our citizens will wonder at the superfluous energy of the Federal Government in preparing and issuing a pamphlet on "How to Keep Your Cellar Dry." —*Louisville Times.*

SOME of the economists think our great President's idea of a flexible tariff wouldn't work out very well, but we hardly see why, in view of the success we have had with flexible platforms.—*Columbus (Ohio) State Journal.*

FOREIGN - COMMENT

GERMAN VIEWS OF FRENCH FEARS

GERMAN ECHOES of Premier Briand's speech before the Washington Conference, in which he drew a full-length picture of the German menace to France, are now heard in the press of the Fatherland. Exaggeration is the chiefest fault ascribed to Mr. Briand by many newspapers, which call attention to the fact that Messrs. Ludendorff & Co., heads of the militarist and monarchist group in Germany, play right into the hands of those French leaders whom the Germans denounce as militaristic, such as former President Poincaré and Marshal Foch. On the other hand, the French press speak of the necessity of remembering that German propaganda is still alive and flourishing, but working with a greater respect for the intelligence of foreign auditors. This much they say Germany has learned; and France has learned enough about Germany to justify her vigilance. In Germany the moderate organs, such as the *Frankfurter Zeitung,* declare that Germany of to-day "hates war and the trappings of war like hell-fire." Like other nations it "stumbled into the World War because of incapable statesmanship, and it suffered unbelievably during the four years' struggle for existence." This daily proceeds:



A PARADE THEY DARE NOT REVIEW.

Monarchist Ludendorff and Pa Hindenburg would get no cheers, but curses from this army of mutilated marchers.

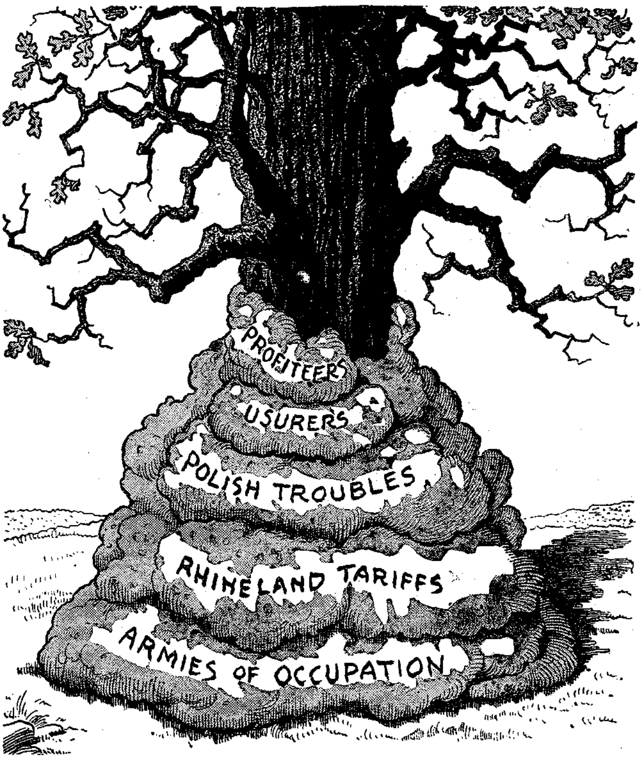
—*Wahre Jakob* (Stuttgart).

> "Germany is branded as the country of Prussian militarism. Now, there have always been Prussian militarists everywhere; and to-day they are more numerous in other countries than in Germany. Is it not a fact that the inhabitants of the occupied region look upon the military spectacle of the Armies of Occupation, especially of the French, with a disdainful smile? Decidedly Germany of to-day is free from militarism, as is testified by all fairminded visitors to the country. Yet, it is not true that the old militarist spirit is dead. On the contrary, it survives and receives constant new sustenance from its fellow in enemy countries.
>
> "Ludendorff and his congeners had slunk away into a corner, at the time of the Armistice when the German people believed that the other nations had a sincere wish for reconciliation. But since the Versailles Treaty and since the attitude of France reveals more and more that there are Ludendorffs also in France and that they would desire Germany's destruction, the old shrill screams of our own isolated militarists are heard again. If the French would only conciliate the German nation they would have no need to fear us, for the great majority of all Germans wish for reconciliation. If France does not decline their proffered hand, this majority is in a position to make good its wish."

Somewhat of a warning to France appears in *Germania,* organ of Chancellor Wirth, which says that "the hour in which France might have come to an understanding with Germany, which is far more important than control commissions, is perhaps not yet passed, but the hand of the clock is perilously near the moment of striking." The Social Democratic *Vorwaerts* observes:

> "Supposing the German proletariat were asked to give its opinion of Briand's speech, we venture to say that their reply would be to this effect: 'In Heaven's name why don't you English, Americans, Italians, Japanese and Portuguese form an offensive and defensive alliance with France, like the alliances, both open and secret, which she has already concluded with Belgium and Poland? And if you do that, lift the intolerable military pressure that France imposes on Germany, which is costing us much more than France, and which expense could be put to so much better use in rebuilding the devastated regions and in caring for war widows and orphans.' "

The *Vorwaerts* goes on to caution the German people against Ludendorff and his ilk because they are really aiding the plans of the French militarists. Moreover, it protests against Premier Briand's statement that France has done all in her power to help the peace party in Germany, namely, the present Coalition Government. As a matter of fact, it declares—

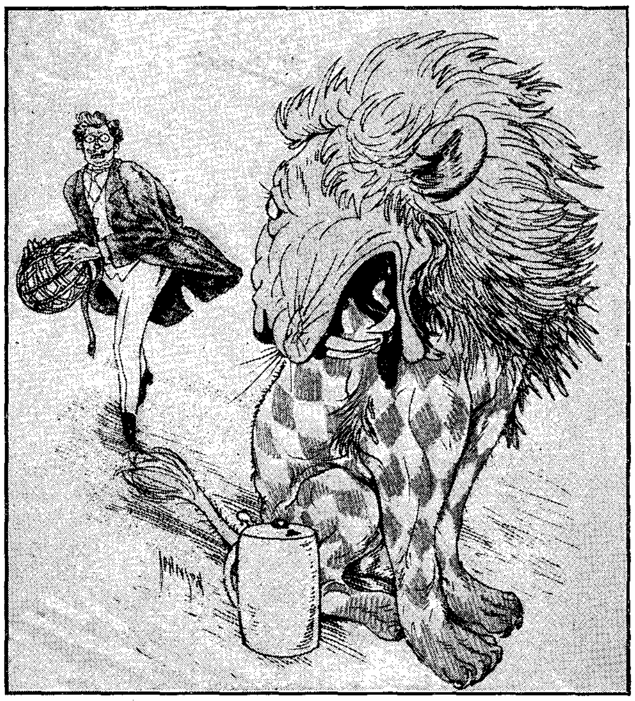


PARASITES ON THE GERMAN OAK.

—*Wahre Jakob* (Stuttgart).

> "In all vital matters affecting German national interests, France could not have done better than she has done, if she had

> started out with the deliberate purpose to stimulate reaction in Germany. We do not wish to repeat what we have often said before, but we will mention just one fact as enough, and that is, Upper Silesia. If the so-called support to the German Republic given by France is of the same kind in the future as we have known in the past, it is beyond question that we shall have an increase of menacing Monarchist and Nationalist sentiment in Germany. At the same time we insist that the supposed 'German peril' would even in these circumstances remain what it is at present, that is, a joke.
>
> "But this joke is a very useful one for French militarists, as it helps them keep their political influence and their high salaries, nor must we forget that it was France, in the person of Marshal Foch, which during the Paris Peace Conference took the stand that Germany should keep an army of 200,000 men, with heavy artillery. At the same time we must remember that it was Premier Lloyd George who reduced this number to 100,000 men without artillery."



MUZZLING BAVARIA'S MONARCHICAL LION.

"Watch your step—this lion bites!"

—*Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

German cries that France is the "militaristic sinner" are echoed too in some sections of the Austrian press. Thus the Socialist *Wiener Arbeiter Zeitung* says that Premier Briand sings the old song of France's love of peace which runs that "only to preserve peace does France need a big army." Wilhelm II sang the same song, according to this daily, which is that "if you wish peace prepare for war," and we read:

> "As the Prussian military monarchy insisted on having armaments, with the consequence that all Europe became one great armed camp—which was the inevitable effect of the French aim of revenge after the blow of 1870—so now the French bourgeois Republic insists on having its armaments, on the plea that the Germans are designing vengeance for their defeat. It is a fact that Germans like Ludendorff and Stinnes give some color to the prospects outlined by Foch and Loucheur. The German Republic, born of the defeat of 1918, has its Boulangers, just as the French Republic, born of the defeat of 1871, had its Ludendorff. Nevertheless, there is a vast difference between the prattle about German revenge in these days and the French policy revenge of before the war. After 1871 France remained a mighty military power, for the Peace of Frankfort did not disarm France as the peace of Versailles disarmed Germany. The requisites of war are no longer to be found in Germany, and before her lost armaments could be replaced, Berlin might be entered by a French army very much weaker than the one now existing. Consequently no serious credit can be given by thinking minds to the twaddle of inveterate pan-Germans about a war of revenge. But Mr. Briand likes to frighten the nursery with this talk for domestic political purposes. In reality the revenge idea of the Pan-Germans is not aimed at France, but at the German proletariat. The fact that Mr. Briand still argues that France can not disarm, because of Germany's daily threat of a new war, *only goes to show how much simplicity and obtuseness* the French military leaders still think there exists in their own and in other nations."

Among the French press we find the Paris (Conservative) *Figaro* saying that "German propaganda would not obtain such fine results if it were not for the mistakes of the Allies," while the Royalist *Gaulois* declares Premier Briand's Washington speech shows "haughty openness" which "dictates our future policy" that "may be exprest in two words: Self-reliance."

PEACE-SEEKING IN THE NEAR EAST

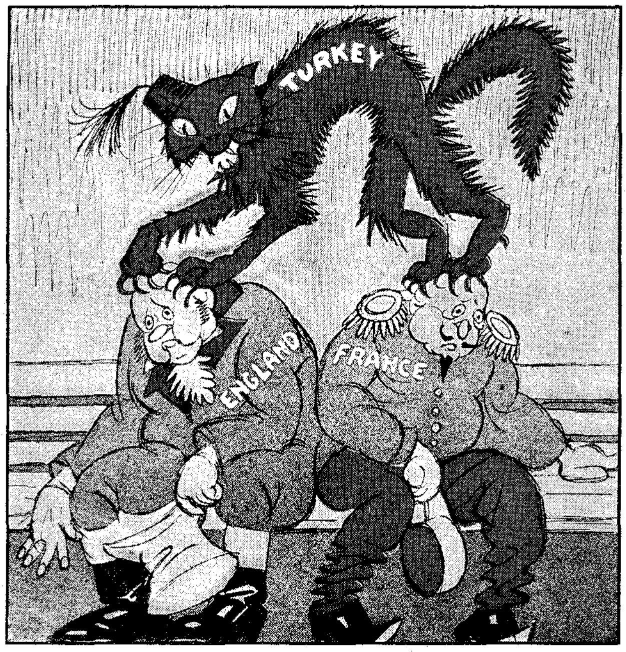
WHAT REALLY ARE THE DEMANDS of King Constantine and his ministers? asks the semi-official Paris *Temps*, which remembers that early in November the Greek leaders were content to have as basis of understanding the conditions that Premier Briand and Lord Curzon, the British Foreign Minister, looked upon as workable last June in Paris. But these terms were rejected in June by the Greek Government, we are told, because it then counted on finishing the war by the capture of Angora. The Greek offensive failed to gain its goal, despite long and hard fighting, which resulted in serious losses, and the consequence was that Constantine's Government decided to agree that Lord Curzon and Premier Briand were right. It remained only to find out whether the Turks, whose military position has been singularly improved since June, would now accept the conditions that were drawn up when they were in a very much weaker position.

So the French Government, when notified of Greece's willingness to accept the terms, replied to England that it would be well to ascertain whether both sides would accede to the basic points of negotiation fixt upon last June. Now the British Government, desirous of being better informed about the wishes of Greece, asked the Greek Premier Gounaris to set them down in writing. Mr. Gounaris forwarded a memorandum to the London Foreign Office, and the contents of this communication have "only reached Paris by hearsay," and this semi-official French organ proceeds:

> "It was proposed, apparently, that a native Greek governor should be installed in Smyrna, and that the Christian minorities in that part of Asia Minor not included in the autonomous zone of Smyrna should be under an administration similiar to that of the Christians in the Smyrna zone. It is permissible to think that the British Government considered the Greek suggestions excessive, and that they asked Mr. Gounaris to modify them. Eventually it was learned that Mr. Gounaris withdrew the propositions that were not satisfactory to England, and that he took wholly and simply the attitude adopted by him at the beginning of November. In other words, the Greek Government seems to be ready to do business on the lines projected last June. Such is the information that has come to Paris. As to the news that England has in mind a conference to be held betweeen the Foreign Ministers of Britain, France and Italy, it does not alter the status in which the problem lies. For the moment, supposing the Greek Government does go back to the ground plan of negotiations drawn up last June, the question still remains, whether the Greeks are willing on their side to treat on this basis."

Le Temps goes on to say that some English newspapers, in particular the London *Daily Telegraph*, are ready to accuse France of being too well disposed towards the Turks. So this important French daily finds satisfaction in an interview in the *Daily Telegraph* which shows that "certain British statesmen share the view-point of France about the Near East." It is related that at Delhi, where the Viceroy of India, Lord Reading, lives, an influential delegation of Mussulmans came to visit him with a specific message, which is not reprinted in the *Daily Telegraph*, but "the tenor of which may be gathered by reading the response which the Viceroy made." The Mussulman delegates, says *Le Temps*, protested against the situation resultant from foreign control of Constantinople, from the giving of Smyrna and Thrace to the Greeks, from the abolition of Turkey's sovereignty at Mecca and Medina. Lord Reading assured the Mussulman delegation, according to the *Daily Telegraph*, that their protest would be presented to the Government of His Britannic Majesty with all the authority possest by the Empire of India. But *Le Temps* points out that—

> "The Viceroy went much farther, for he reported to the Mussulman delegates that Mr. Lloyd George 'had already spoken for the suppression of international control at Constantinople, reserving the conditions of internationalization of the Straits,' and had thus spoken 'in the common interest of Turkey and general peace.' Lord Reading even added—which makes one think that negotiations are really in process between the Britannic Government, the Government of India, and the Mussulman organization on the subject of the restoration of peace in the Orient—'that the views of the delegation, as far as they concerned Thrace, had already borne fruit, and that when the conditions were known, it would be realized that the Indian Mussulman view-point plays a much larger rôle than has been hitherto suspected, especially in all matters touching religious thought.' These interesting declarations, which show the political sagacity of Lord Reading, give evidence that the British Government understands the necessity of handling Mussulman opinion by making it officially known that the rights of the Turks are respected."



THE ANGORA CAT.

ENGLAND AND FRANCE: "If a cat has nine lives, how many has Turkey?"

—*De Muskete* (Vienna).

Le Temps declares, however, that there is no possibility of general peace in the Near East as long as Constantine and his ministers do not agree to evacuate all Asia Minor and to take out of it with evacuation all form and pretext of intervention, and it adds:

> "If the British Government could obtain such an agreement from Premier Gounaris it would render a great service not only to the Mussulmans, who have manifested their sentiments in India, but also to the Christian populations of Asia Minor, who suffer cruelly through the Greco-Turkish War, of which they are the pretended benefactors, and who will find definitive guarantees for themselves only in a treaty consummated by the principal Allied Powers and the Turks."

ENGLAND'S "GREATEST HOME RULER"

OF ALL THOSE who stood with Gladstone thirty-five years ago in the first attempt to do for Ireland what England has done in the agreement that makes the Emerald Isle a Free State, Lord Morley, known to politicians and the public for many years as "Honest John" Morley, is beyond question the greatest survivor. Thus observes the Manchester *Guardian*, which considers it a handsome gesture that Lord Curzon should have chosen Viscount Morley of Blackburn to move in the House of Lords the Address in reply to the King's speech inviting Parliament to ratify the peace with Ireland. *The Guardian* goes on to say, that "every surviving British Home Ruler of 1886 will express his delight in the happiness that falls to Lord Morley," and it continues:

> "How incessantly the history of the British Empire illustrates the truth of that guiding principle—that in seasons of crisis and danger the bolder course is almost always the right course for a British statesman! And what a discourse Lord Morley, of all men, could utter on that theme."

British statesmanship did the bold thing in Canada, when it was all but lost to Britain, we are told, and it "saved Canada to be our magnificent comrade in the sorest of all our after-trials." It did the bold thing in South Africa, and "healed even the hatred burnt into Dutch South Africa's heart by the 13,000 deaths of children in our concentration camps." On the other hand—

> "We shrank back in caution and suspicion when the United States of to-day were ours to keep or throw away, and we lost them. For a quarter of a century we stood shivering, hesitating, and reflecting before doing the bold thing in Ireland, with the result that the dive we had to take became always higher and higher, the water below always colder and colder. This is not to say that there can not be such a thing as excessive boldness in statesmanship. Nor does it mean that no real and serious risks were run in each of those cases where our boldness prospered. What it means is that, the English political temperament being compounded as it is, the danger of playing too exclusively for safety in a political crisis is a much more closely besetting danger to it than that of launching out too boldly in some act of sheer faith in the power of generosity and in the general decency of mankind. 'We can't risk it' was the commonest of all the reasons that weighed with intelligent, moderate men on the Unionist side in 1886. The words express an assumption that in dealing with Ireland there was safety to be had at all—that the existing system was a kind of solid land, and Home Rule a plunge from it into deep water."

All the great choices of politics are choices "between one expanse of deep waters, and another," it is averred, and any provision, old or new, for the government of large masses of men and women is a taking of risks. The life of a nation like the British, which finds itself at the head of a huge various Empire "can never be the extraordinarily secure life to which civilization has accustomed us as individuals," and we read further:

> "It remains, in any event, a life as precarious and, in a sense, adventurous as that of the medieval Florentine who never knew, when he left home in the morning, whether his vigilance, boldness, and wit would suffice to bring him home alive—except that the perils are mostly not physical and the qualities needed are not those of the swordsman but the more difficult courage, alertness, prescience, and adaptiveness of the statesman."

Of these qualities, *The Guardian* declares, Lord Morley's career has set his countrymen one of their greatest examples, and it adds:

> "The roots of such a decision as England is making at Westminster to-day go pretty far back into the past, and the brave and honorable act now all but accomplished is the act not only of those whom history will record as the final agents, but also of a multitude of obscure and unrewarded laborers with the political spade. All of us can remember Englishmen who toiled unrecognized, year after year, to bring about this peace with Ireland as other men toil to gain wealth or fame for themselves, and who died with nothing but their own passion for right-doing to keep the hope of success alive in them to the last."

ARMENIAN WARNINGS AGAINST TURKEY

GREAT ANXIETY to resume relations with the United States is preying on the mind of Turkish diplomats and goading them to diligent and devious endeavor, according to Armenian newspapers in the United States, which directly reflect Armenian home opinion. The Turks are said to realize the unique position of the United States in the world and therefore seek to benefit by it in two directions. First they want a counter-irritant against "Armenian propaganda," says the Armenian daily *Hairenik* (Boston); and secondly they desire to neutralize Greek activities. On the first point this journal remarks:

> "How audacious these villainous Turks are! After dealing a deadly blow with intent to annihilate the Armenian race, they are now maneuvering to estrange from us the United States, the greatest friend of our race and the defender of the ideal of an independent Armenian state. Here in America is the stronghold of the Armenian cause and here the Turks intend to get a grip. After succeeding in acquiring some standing in London, Paris, Rome and Moscow, the Turks feel encouraged to approach Washington with their attractive bait of concessions. They feel that if they can get a foothold in Washington, all will be well for Turkey and the Kemalists."

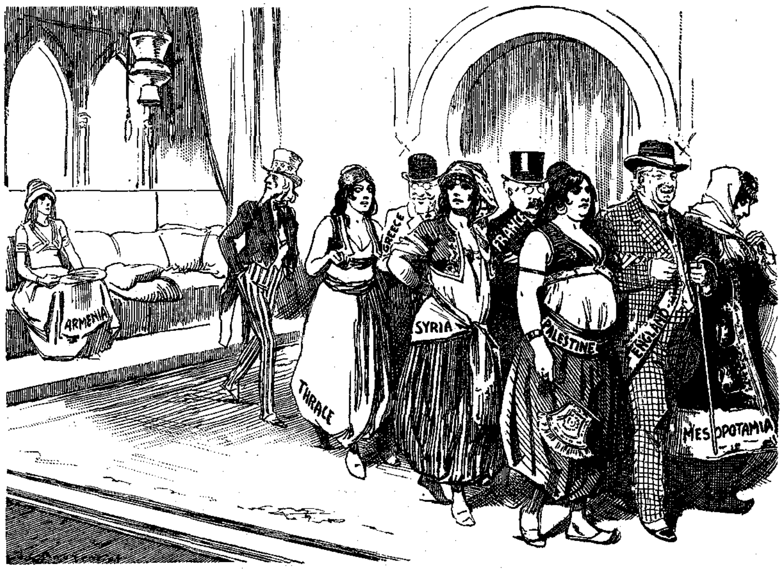
This Armenian newspaper expresses its belief that the United States will not wish to resume diplomatic relations with Turkey so long as Turkey has not yet made its peace with the Allies. Moreover, it holds that "it would be dishonorable and mean for America to desert the Armenian cause without some practical guaranties, and to leave the fate of the Armenians to the mercy of the Turkish blood-stained simitar." It is further predicted that Armenia and the Armenian people everywhere, especially thousands of Armenians in America, will suffer a tragic disappointment if the United States resumes diplomatic relations with Turkey before the Armenian question is finally settled. This daily describes Turkey as a country which has "shown itself to be a great enemy of civilization and has all but reduced to nothing the American educational and philanthropic institutions in Turkey." Says another Armenian journal, the Boston *Azk-Bahag:*

> "In spite of the severance of diplomatic relations the Turks have not ceased to court the favor of the United States, both during the war and since the armistice. They knew that American public opinion and the American Government would have a deciding influence in the settlement of questions raised by the war, so they have made every effort to win the friendship of America, or at least to neutralize American influence as much as possible, so that the former subjects of Turkey might not receive the active cooperation of America in their struggle for freedom.
>
> "It was with these things in mind that the Turks, who regard all foreigners with hatred and suspicion, gave a royal reception everywhere to General Harbord and his mission. Admiral Bristol, the American High Commissioner in Constantinople, and his office have been and are the object of special Turkish favoritism, almost to the point of scandal. Similarly the Turks have neglected no opportunity to take American newspaper correspondents in a personally conducted party to Angora, and through them to announce to the world the progress 'new Turkey has made.'"

But this newspaper does not believe that the formal attempts of the Turks to reestablish diplomatic relations with the United States will be more successful than their informal attempts. It admits that the Turks are "past masters in diplomatic craft and have often been successful in playing one nation against another in Europe"; but it declares that they do not know America and can not realize the spirit of the country in which "the square deal and disinterested service constitute the foundation of national policy."

DEADLOCK IN EGYPT

DISTURBANCES IN EGYPT, notably in Cairo and Port Said, the sequel to the forcible removal from Cairo to Suez of Said Zagloul Pasha, a Nationalist leader, and five of his followers, by the British military authorities, because they refused to discontinue their political activities and leave the city, resulted by Christmas Day in the estimated killing of about nineteen persons, and the wounding of about forty-five. The outbreak is the direct consequence of the deadlock in Egyptian affairs, which the London *Economist* says is due to Egyptian Nationalist "impatience." From the British standpoint, the plan sketched in the Milner Report, it tells us, formally terminates the British Protectorate, recognizes Egypt as a sovereign state, and gives her the option of representation by her own diplomatic and consular agents abroad. But it establishes "a perpetual treaty of alliance with Great Britain, and protects British interests by appointment of a High Commissioner with precedence over the representatives of other Powers, and having the right to be consulted before the conclusion of any conventions with them."



TURKEY AND THE CHRISTIAN SALVAGE CORPS.

"Armenia remains the wall-flower."

—*De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).

The abolition of the Capitulations with thirteen other Powers which "fetter Egypt in legislation and taxation" is to be negotiated by Great Britain, which would take over the protection of foreign interests. The *Economist* also informs us that Great Britain would guarantee Egyptian independence and territorial integrity, but "would maintain British troops in Egypt, with full right of passage over all railways and facilities for establishing military and naval stations and aerodromes." Finally, the partnership in the Sudan would continue, and a triumvirate, representing Egypt, the Sudan, and Uganda, would secure the equitable distribution of the waters of the Nile. But we read:

> "The Nationalist representatives, enabled by the silence of the Moderates to claim a mandate from the Egyptian people, object that the Commissioners, and the control of foreign relations and of the protection of foreign residents, constitute a virtual British Protectorate.
>
> "They also demand, on historic grounds, that Egypt shall have full control of the Sudan, which she could at present neither administer nor hold. But their chief objection is clearly to the garrisons, the ever-present sign of British power and control."

SCIENCE - AND - INVENTION

INDUSTRIAL "UNDESIRABLES"

THREE CLASSES OF MEN are so spoiled by the conditions of their employment that they are declared to be unfitted for jobs in a modern industrial plant. H. A. Haring, in an article contributed to *Industrial Management* (New York), asserts that habits become so ingrained in these classes of employees that it is practically impossible to eradicate them, and that men of these types should therefore be avoided, or at least regarded with suspicion, by employers in industrial occupations. The same warning that bids employers beware of these workers may obviously also be profitably utilized by the men themselves to resolve to get rid of the objectionable traits and so make the warning unnecessary. The classes that Mr. Haring proposes to blacklist are, first, waiters, porters, and others who expect "tips"; second, railway brakemen, flagmen and switchmen; and third, coal-miners. That these men are unfitted for factory employment, Mr. Haring tells us, has been revealed by experience gained in the effort to reduce labor turnover. It is unwise to employ them for the reason that such employees are likely to prove inefficient or to become discontented, and therefore to quit. He continues:

"First to be avoided is the group composed of those who have been waiters or bell-boys at hotels, porters in sleeping-cars, and public attendants in railway stations. Quite a number of other employments are of the same general nature, all having as their outstanding characteristic that a 'tip' is involved.

"Whatever the origin of the term for this practise, no one will question its evil effect on the servant, whose whole character seems, somehow, to be undermined thereby.

"In employment such that gratuities are a part of the compensation, quickness and alertness are more apparent than real. These men have been trained under a system wherein their earnings depend not upon the quality of their work, but solely upon the wealth and caprice of their patrons.

"Such men are poorly fitted to become employees of an industrial plant with its monotony of work. They weary of regular duties and they are unhappy if working within confined areas. Down in their hearts they are scheming to get more money for the same work in the form of extra pay.

"A second group of applicants to be avoided is composed of those who have been railroad train crews. This term does not apply to locomotive engineers and firemen, but to brakemen, flagmen, switchmen, and the like. Not merely are these men a large proportion of the employed men of the United States, they are even a larger proportion of the floating or nomadic labor supply. Railroads respond quickly to the country's swings of prosperity and depression, with the result that they alternately employ and discharge men in large numbers.

"Yard crew work or rear-end crew work are the two places where beginners for train service are taken. The railroads of the country have what is known as their seniority rule for train service, one feature of which provides that the most recent employee shall be the first to be dropt from the rolls, discharge then going progressively up the line of men. For these two reasons we find in this group all of the large number of railroad men of irregular employment, and, consequently, practically all of them who apply elsewhere for work.

"Elapsed time, not work performed, is the basis of railroad crew compensation. Pay is on the basis of hours and miles. The Brotherhood leaders have without ceasing preached to their men the gospel that they are selling to the railroads their time, not their services. The men are now thoroughly schooled in this doctrine. The belief simply ruins such men for becoming efficient workers in ordinary industrial occupations.

"As a consequence of their spending so many hours merely sitting in cars without active occupation or waiting on sidings during delays, these men form another habit which is equally fruitful of trouble elsewhere. They become great talkers. They have time to listen too much to rabid talk of grievances and wrongs. They have too much leisure to think over and rehearse stuff of this sort, without exercise enough to work it off. Only too often one ex-railroad man of the talking type will disorganize his department within the noon hours of his first week.

"A third class of men to be avoided for industrial plants contains those who have come from the coal mines. The mining of coal is piece work, the basis being the ton. Men work, either singly or in couples, in 'rooms,' each connected with the passage or entry ways. The possibility of continuous supervision or of surprize tests does not exist. The coal-miner may work diligently all day or he may loaf eight hours. Transplant such a man into a factory where production is speeded and no imagination is required to picture what will happen. He has no conception of a plan wherein each worker is fitted and speeded to other workers.

"Miners, furthermore, occasionally present a difficulty in the matter of grievances. This arises from the method of handling disagreements in the mines, a method which does not exist to anything like an equal state in any other industry.

"The coal mines are the most thoroughly organized, or unionized, of our industries. The great control of the officers over the men has been obtained by making every petty grievance a matter for settlement between the union official and the mine-owner, instead of permitting the mine foreman to settle it with the individual miner. The method of securing action is to magnify the grievance by shutting down the mine before attempting adjudication. A miner, therefore, entering industrial employment, must learn that he will not be babied, and his imaginary injuries unduly magnified by a stoppage of the 'works' for any small cause.

"It is needless to caution the reader that the characteristics mentioned as applying to these three classes of workers do not exist in each individual equally, nor will every single man be inoculated with them. They nevertheless in a general sense apply to those who have previously worked under the feeing system, on the railroads as trainmen, and in the coal mines. Such men should be accepted with these class deficiencies in mind, or should be employed for work which is temporary in nature or which does not suffer from turnover."

THE MYTH OF SUDDEN HAIR-WHITENING—The inherent improbability of all the tales of persons whose "hair turned white in a single night," is maintained editorially by *The Journal of the American Medical Association* (Chicago), despite some testimony to the contrary. Says this journal:

"Accounts of the sudden loss of color in hair are occasionally found in popular literature, and legendary accounts of phenomenal blanching of the hair over night or within relatively brief periods are wide-spread. One explanation advanced is that the white appearance is due to the entrance of air into the hair—a conception recently reiterated by the physical chemist Bancroft of Cornell University. Strong had previously exprest a doubt, based on microscopic examination, whether gray hairs ordinarily contain any more air or other gaseous material than do colored hairs. Recently he has pointed out anew that hair consists of numerous cornified epithelial cells more or less incompletely fused together. In the case of human hair, most of the structure is cortical. These cells furnish a vast number of external and internal reflecting surfaces, as can easily be seen by placing a white hair on the microscope stage with no mounting fluid. When pigment is present, the incident light is more or less extensively absorbed, according to the amount of pigment, before reaching the deeper cells. The amount of undispersed light reflected depends, of course, on the number of internal reflecting surfaces not screened by pigment. There is always some reflection of undispersed light by the hair cuticle, no matter how much pigment is present. Admitting that white in hair structures is due to failure of pigment formation in the follicle before cornification takes place, the blanching of hair must be a slow process determined by the rate of its growth. Consequently the reports of sudden blanching of the hair must be regarded as inherently improbable."

TELEPHONING FROM A MOVING TROLLEY CAR

THE TROLLEY WIRE of an electric railway system carries a current powerful enough to move its cars, with all their passengers. It might be thought impracticable to call upon it to transmit in addition a telephone current, with its minute variations of intensity, reproducing human speech at a distant point; yet this is exactly what takes place in what is known as the "carrier current" system of communication, of which a demonstration was given at Schenectady on December 1. These tests were the culmination of development work extending over ten years, followed by practical tests on the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railroad, where communication was effected up to sixty miles. Says a writer in *The Electric Railway Journal* (Chicago, December 10):

"The system makes use of a second current superimposed on the same trolley wire which supplies current to operate the electric car. This 'carrier current,' which is generated at higher frequency than the power supply, serves to transmit messages along the wire, from which it is picked up at any convenient point and made to energize a telephone instrument. The demonstration took place on the Schenectady Railway, five miles from the city, and was arranged by the railway department of the General Electric Company, which is interested in the development of the new system.

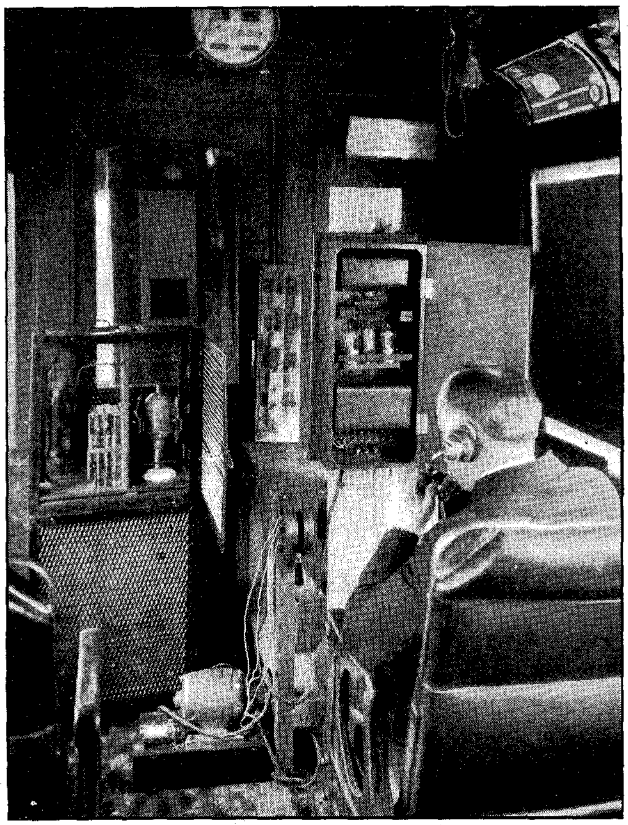
"From the moving electric car the railway men were enabled to talk successfully with a substation on the line several miles distant, and also to listen to conversation from the operator in the station. The second feature of the demonstration was listening to the conversation of the substation attendant at a waiting-room two miles from the substation, the messages being transmitted over the trolley wire and amplified in the waiting-room by a loud-speaking telephone instrument.

"The demonstration was designed primarily to show the application of the system to communication on electric railways, especially as regards expediting train operation. The apparatus used for carrier current communication is small and simple of operation.

"It consists essentially of vacuum tubes used as oscillators, rectifiers and detectors, making up a telephone equipment equaling in sensitiveness and simplicity the most modern apparatus."

So successful were the experiments that telephone and traction engineers believe they will lead to the early perfection of a practical telephone system for electric roads. We read:

"Commenting on the tests, W. B. Potter, engineer of the railway and traction department of the General Electric Company, said: 'These tests at Schenectady and on the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railroad indicate the early perfection of a practical telephone system, utilizing the power wires as a conductor, which will provide for the usual call and telephone communication between different cars or trains. This system is equally applicable to communication between the train dispatcher and the trains in operation under his direction. This is an important development which we feel sure will contribute materially to the facility and safety of railway operation.'"



Courtesy of "The Electric Railway Journal."

TELEPHONING FROM A MOVING TROLLEY CAR.

POSSIBILITIES OF DRIED BANANAS

BANANA-FIGS, BANANA-CHIPS and banana-flour may soon be common articles of commerce. Their manufacture will be a revival on an improved plan of dried banana products common in Central Europe during the war. Oscar James Vogl, writing in *The American Food Journal* (New York) reminds us that Germany and Austria had to conserve every ounce of food, and so were forced to make use of dehydration in all conceivable forms. It is therefore not to be wondered at that the authorities on food dehydration are found in Germany. No other country has devoted so much thought and research to this industry. To-day fifty million underfed Germans and Austrians depend for their food largely on dehydration. Mr. Vogl continues:

"In getting the data for this article I was compelled to visit the scientific sanctuary and laboratories of Dr. Herman Luthje of Berlin, who cheerfully and kindly put aside all secretiveness, and frankly told me the story of dehydrating bananas.

"A great injustice is always done a new food industry when it is permitted to use questionable raw materials. The canning industry never made such rapid strides until it adopted quality and rigid factory inspection as a permanent policy.

"Food dehydration has unfortunately been used as a war relief measure and many food products have been dehydrated which should have been thrown away.

"Bananas being a very delicate fruit, easily spoiled, bruised and contaminated, must therefore be carefully selected for dehydrating purposes. Any sort of banana can be dehydrated of course, just as any apricot, peach, plum, or prune; but if a quality product is desired, only ripe, sound, perfect fruit should be used.

"Dehydrated bananas found much favor and a ready market in Central Europe under the name of banana figs. In fact, the demand exceeded the supply as long as quality banana figs were produced.

"A decline in demand succeeded the prosperity period, but to-day the field is again wide open. Small, sweet bananas are best suited for the making of fine banana figs. They must be allowed to ripen thoroughly in the storage room until they have turned to a golden yellow color. Then they must be peeled and all fiber removed.

"Before the war this peeling was done by hand, but now machines have been invented, making the process very sanitary. These machines also provide for proper dumping of the peelings. The quicker these are removed from the premises the better it is for the finished product.

"Free from skins and fiber the bananas are placed on trays, the trays stacked on tray carts running on rails and passed through tunnel dryers until their water content has been reduced to twenty per cent.

"During dehydration the banana goes through a physical as well as a chemical process. The physical process is the drying out of a great part of the water.

"The chemical process is the complete conversion of the starch into sugar.

"The perfect finished product is of rich golden yellow color and of sticky figlike appearance. It is packed in boxes and shipped to market, keeping its fine flavor and color for many months if stored in a well-ventilated cool and dry place.

"The poorly made banana figs are tough and leathery. If over-ripe or not properly ripened fruit has been used, it can be detected in the flavor, which in that case would be sour, and sometimes rancid.

"For banana chips one uses the large bananas, rich in starch, known as 'Machos,' since they are not suitable for the manufacture of banana figs on account of their low sugar content.

"These dry banana chips are quite brittle and are milled into a fine flour. In this form they find a ready market among the biscuit manufacturers, who blend it in right proportions with wheat flour and produce through it a highly palatable, fine flavored, aromatic baked product. It is also used for the baking of cakes, pies, and for confectionery.

"All believers in a well-rounded diet recognize in the banana one of the most nourishing fruit products known. Owing to its large content of albumen, sugar, starch and mineral salts, it is entitled to a high position among fruit foods.

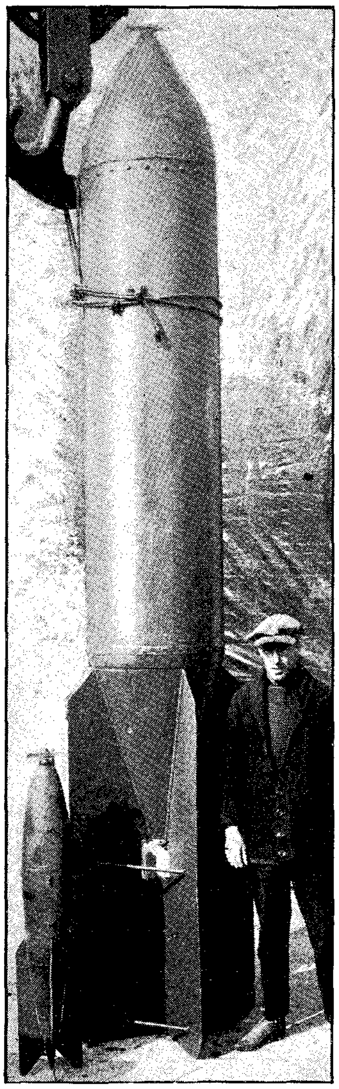
"When applied to dehydrated banana products, this statement may be underscored, for here we have reduced the water content, and providing the right process has been used, all starch has been converted into easily digested sugar, while the albumen and mineral salt content remains the same as in the ripe banana.

"In some ways the properly dehydrated banana is to be preferred to the freshly picked fruit. The food value cost is considerably lower than that of fresh bananas. If, for example, bananas were costing the consumer 40 cents per dozen, and five bananas represented a pound, this pound of banana food value would cost the consumer 16½ cents. Three pounds, representing 15 fresh bananas would cost, therefore, 49½ cents. While one pound of dehydrated bananas or banana figs, for example, would only cost the consumer 35 cents, since it takes about 4½ pounds of fresh bananas to make a pound of dehydrated, the dehydrated is four and a half times as nourishing and forty per cent. cheaper, besides being more easily digested, since the starch has been converted into sugar. It would be hard to find another food product possessing the same nutritive value per pound."

RABBITS AND MOSQUITOES—Malaria is propagated by the Anopheles mosquito. This creature is by no means rare in European countries, but the malady it disseminates is quite uncommon, whereas its ravages in this country and other non-European lands are very extensive. The reason for this, we are told in the *Bibliotheque Universelle* (Paris), has been studied by two French physiologists, Legendre and Oliveau, and they have come to the astonishing conclusion that the comparative immunity from malaria of the inhabitants of Europe, is due to the very general custom of rearing rabbits! In other words, it is not that the mosquitoes love mankind less but that they love rabbits more. Given a choice between human flesh and that of the rabbit, they find the latter more delectable. In their report to the French Academy of Sciences these scientists state that this singular theory is amply supported by facts. One of the most convincing of these is that in a locality abounding with the Anopheles mosquitoes they are never found in human dwelling-places nor among cattle, horses, swine, or fowls, provided there are rabbit hutches nearby. Stranger still, Mrs. Anopheles, who is the deadlier of the species, has no use for Mrs. Rabbit, confining her quest for blood to the male.

THE BIGGEST AIR BOMB

THE WORLD'S LARGEST BOMB was dropt from an airplane at a recent meeting of the Army Ordnance Association, as described in *Army Ordnance* (Washington). This latest development of aircraft bombs weighed 4,000 pounds, or two tons, and William A. Borden, author of the article in the magazine just named, believes it doubtful, if the general public, whose impression has been gained in motion pictures, fully appreciates the great size or destructive power of this super-bomb. He goes on:



Courtesy of the Army Ordnance Department.

4,000-POUND DEMOLITION BOMB

100-pound Demolition Bomb at left.

"The accompanying illustration of the bomb in an upright position with a man on one side and a 100-pound Demolition Bomb on the other gives a good idea of its relative dimensions. It measures 13½ feet in height (from fins to nose). It is nearly 2 feet in diameter, and has an actual weight of about 4,300 pounds, of which approximately 2,000 pounds is high explosive. So far as is known no other country has produced a similar weapon of such size.

"It was designed by the Aircraft Armament Division in the Office of the Chief of Ordnance, for use by the largest bombing aircraft in the attack of naval vessels of the most modern battle-ship type, and in raids against great munition plants. Careful consideration was given to all results obtained in previous experimental work, and in the design are embodied all the latest improvements. Altho constructed to penetrate without deformation or fracture the usual targets against which it might be used, it is not constructed to go through heavy armor. In addition to being made strong enough to withstand impact, the case is proportioned to hold as much explosive as possible, for it is mainly upon the amount of explosive carried that the destructive effect of the bomb is dependent. Fuses in the nose and tail of the bomb have been designed to give either instantaneous action or delayed action, permissible delays ranging from a few hundredths of a second up to several seconds. Taken as a whole, the bomb may be considered the most powerful and efficient weapon of its type yet produced.

"In the test, the bomb was carried in the air by an American-made Handley-Page, and in order that the airplane might lift this great weight it was stript of all its extra military load, the fuel tanks were but partly filled, and the pilot, bomber and one mechanician were the only ones allowed to make the flight. Taking off with such a load was in itself a dangerous venture, and added to this was the hitherto untried experiment of releasing so much weight at one time from an airplane.

"The observers witnessed the test from the main front of the proving ground, about 2,000 yards from the point over which the bomb was dropt. As the airplane approached the bomb could be seen very clearly suspended in position under the fuselage, and when released it dropt in perfect flight, nosing down slowly with fins guiding it on its curved path through the air. Asked later concerning the effect of the release, the pilot stated that the airplane shot up about twenty feet, but this was no worse than a bad 'bump,' often encountered in flying.

"When the bomb struck the ground, great masses of earth, débris and smoke were hurled hundreds of feet in the air, and several seconds later came the tremendous crash of the detonation. A delay of a few hundredths of a second was used to allow the bomb to penetrate the ground to form a crater, thus limiting the distribution of fragments and eliminating the possibility of any one of these fragments being projected as far as the observing party. Some of the observers were disappointed that the effect from the detonation was not appreciably felt, but when the smoke and dust had cleared away the power of the bomb was shown by the immense crater formed."

SPECIAL · JAPAN · SECTION

JAPAN'S SEVENTY DAZZLING YEARS

TO AMERICAN EYES no fact so clearly fixes Japan as a World Power as the Quadruple Pact of the Pacific. We have had treaties and agreements before now with Japan, but in this one we are signed up with Japan, Great Britain and France in an international agreement in the widest sense—as wide as the vast reaches of the world's greatest ocean. The pregnant event comes as a dramatic climax in the drama of Japan and the United States which began with Commodore Perry's expedition to the China Seas and Japan in 1852–53.

Adachi photo.

CROWN PRINCE HIROHITO.

Japan's newly created Regent, who, it is said, "will do more for the general cause of democracy in Japan than any other one factor."

When the "big black fire-ships of the barbarians" as the Japanese of the Fifties described Perry's squadron of two steam frigates and two sloops of war, appeared in the Harbor of Yeddo, they anchored fifty miles from the city. Nevertheless the terror of the Japanese at "such a war-like apparition," writes I. Nitobe ("Intercourse between the United States and Japan"), threw the city into a convulsion of fear:

> "In all directions were seen mothers flying with children in their arms, and men with mothers on their backs. Rumors of an immediate action, exaggerated each time they were communicated from mouth to mouth, added horror to the horror-stricken. The tramp of war-horses, the clatter of armed warriors, the noise of carts, the parade of firemen, the insistent tolling of bells, the shrieks of women, the cries of children, the din in all the streets of a city of more than a million souls made confusion worse confounded."

In time Commodore Perry succeeded through strenuous negotiation in persuading the Japanese of his peaceful intent and in convincing them of the mutual advantage of trade intercourse with the Western world. Since then the progress of Japan, in sheer imitation of the West, has been so dazzling down the speedway of the years as to blind the eyes and alarm the souls of the peoples of the Western world as ominously as the Japanese themselves were terrified when the American squadron dropped anchor off Yeddo. The present cover of THE LITERARY DIGEST commemorates Commodore Perry. The Japanese inscription at the Commodore's right means "Japan's Seventy Dazzling Years"; and the one at his left means "Special Japan Number."

The advancement of trade was always the primary object of Americans, as is evidenced in the speech delivered by Commodore Perry before the American Geographical and Statistical Society on March 6, 1856, in which he spoke of the need for American steamship lines in the Pacific. On the question of trade and intercourse he said in part:

> "May we not reasonably suppose that intelligent travelers will be allowed to penetrate without restraint into the interior districts of China and Japan?—explore the mountains and rivers—investigate the literature of the people—describe to us the natural production and geological character of the country, rich as we know both China and Japan to be in all the more valued materials? . . .
>
> "Whatever may be the future changes in the character of our institutions, the people will retain the same spirit of adventure and indomitable enterprise, and the Pacific Ocean, with its many islands and its frontier coasts, will ere long be as familiar to them as are the countries lying on the Atlantic."

If we consider the stupendous expansion of the United States in population and resources in the past seventy years, we are observing a fact of world politics so natural and familiar as to be almost commonplace; but when we contemplate the growth in the same stretch of years of the Island Kingdom into what some call "the Prussia of the Far East," we are beholding a transformation of civilization as miraculous as the change from stage-coach to the passenger airplane.

Some observers report that the Japanese in Japan live in "a semi-circle of hostile peoples." They say the Siberians "hate the yellow men for directing the affairs of a white people in their country"; that the Koreans are "in revolt"; that the Chinese "detest and boycott the Japanese"; that the Filipinos "fear, distrust, and dislike them"; that the Formosan aborigines "conduct guerrilla warfare on the Japanese constabulary"; and that "many British residents in the Far East speak scathingly of the Japanese." These informants tell us further that the dislike and arrogance shown by white people towards the Japanese have bred in the latter "dislike and arrogance towards the white man." Such citations show the chief points of feeling antagonistic to Japan.

On the credit side of Japan the plea is made by political writers, who are not Japanese, that if she has been guilty of imperialistic aggressiveness, she has merely been imitating her Western exemplars. Her mistake is, they say, that "she got into the imperialistic business about twenty years after it was not considered a legitimate business." Another writer lightly declares that "when Japan sat in the international game it was draw poker; but shortly after she had mastered the finesse of it, they changed the game to parchesi." Whatever other nations may think of Japan, the American people insist on their right to form their own judgment. To this end the following pages furnish the most comprehensive account and analysis of Japan, the country and the people, that has ever been issued in an American publication. The method followed is the usual method of THE LITERARY DIGEST and the spirit animating this effort is to tell of Japan as she is, extenuating nothing and setting down nothing in malice.

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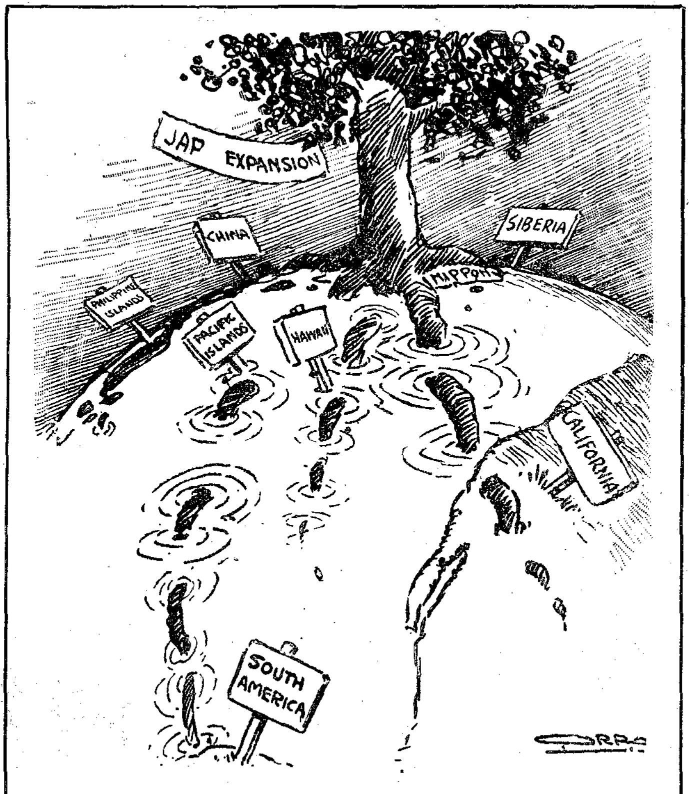
JAPAN AND THE UNITED STATES

THE EASTWARD MOVEMENT OF THE JAPANESE and the westward expansion of the United States have made the Pacific the stage for the dramatic meeting of two civilizations. Here "the rising tide of color" breaks against the western frontier of the white race. Northward this impact is felt along Canada's Pacific Coast, and on the other side of the world Australia and New Zealand have also their "Japanese problems." As a Japanese publicist says, "no one denies that the contact of different peoples and civilizations is liable to create friction"—a truth colloquially epitomized in the Cockney expression, "'e's a stranger, 'eave a brick at 'im." In the case of Japan and the United States the points of contact and friction have multiplied in recent years, changing to some extent an almost romantic international friendship to an attitude of mutual suspicion. Despite official assurances of good-will on both sides, no one who reads the newspapers can blink the fact that this feeling of apprehension has persisted at least with certain elements in both countries, and responsible observers have even pictured the two nations drifting rapidly toward the maelstrom of war. Thus when President Harding invited Japan and the other Pacific Powers to the Washington Disarmament Conference the Chicago *Tribune*, one of our influential and representative papers, remarked: "If the Conference can get agreements which will disarm distrust, eliminate provocative rivalry and stop competition in preparation for war, peace will be preserved. Otherwise the causes which make war are making them in the Pacific." And Professor Walter B. Pitkin, in his recent dispassionate study of the question, "Must We Fight Japan?" (The Century Company), reminds us that "there are many more powerful forces making for war between Japan and the United States to-day than there were making for war between Germany and the United States only ten years ago." He adds, however, the reassuring reminder that "there are some powerful forces working to prevent such a war which were not working to prevent the war between Germany and the United States."



THE ROOTS.

—Orr in the Chicago *Tribune*.

What are these forces making for and against war? To meet this question we have examined the latest testimony of many students of American-Japanese relations, witnesses representing the viewpoints of both nations, and have attempted in this article to summarize and classify their answers. Turning first to those factors which are reflected in the accompanying full-page map, we see that Japan's annexations of territory and extensions of influence from the close of the Chinese-Japanese War in 1895 to the beginning of the World War were not of particular significance to the United States except in so far as Japan's expanding "spheres of influence" on the Asiatic mainland brought her in conflict with our doctrine of the "open door" in China. But at the end of the World War, when the Peace Conference gave Japan a mandate over the former German islands of the Pacific, north of the equator, the United States saw Japan established between the Philippines and our potential naval base at Guam, our cable rights in Yap jeopardized, and, as one critic of the Versailles Treaty put it, Japanese territory brought two thousand miles closer to the Panama Canal.

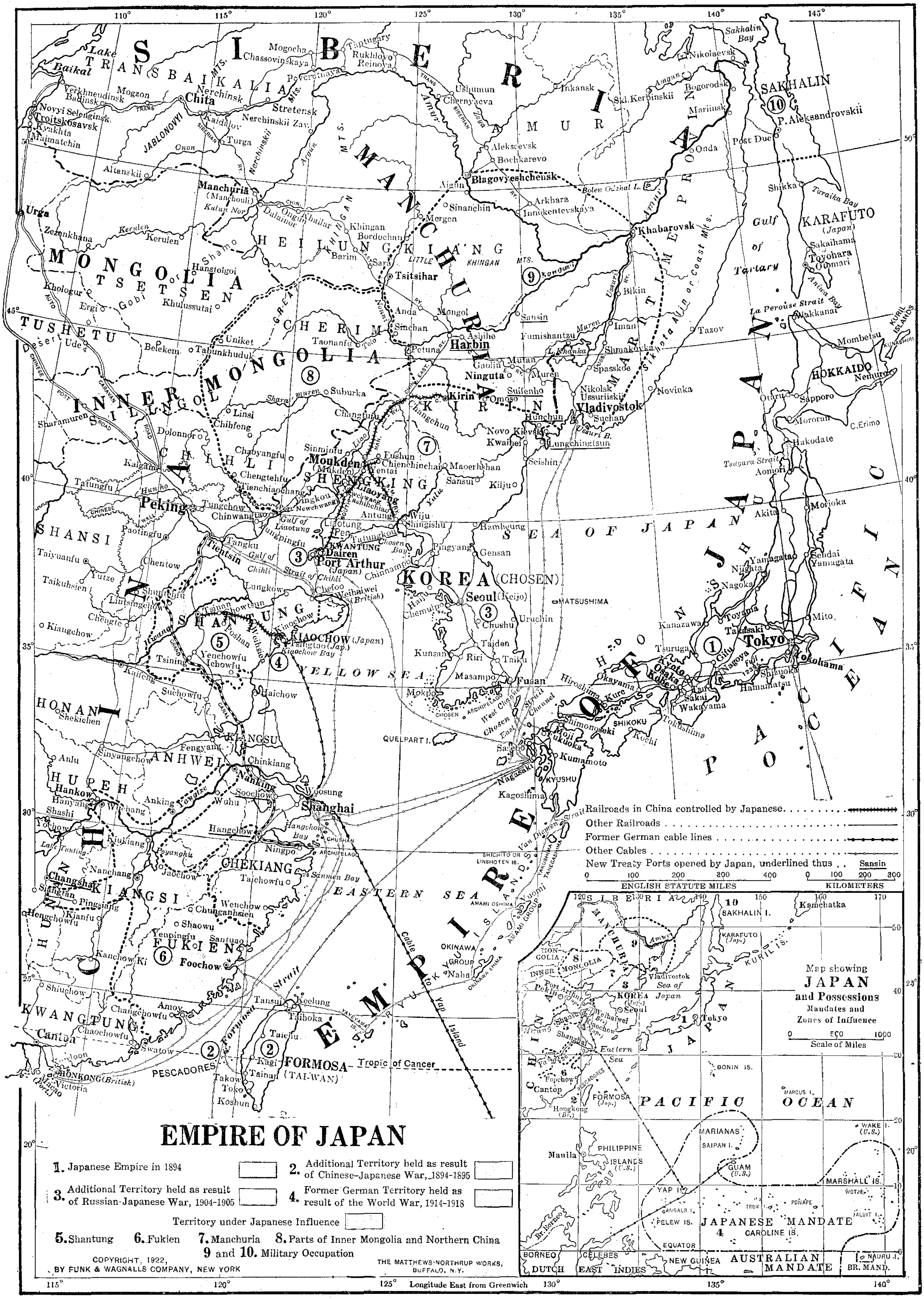
But while Japan was thus drawing nearer to us geographically, we also were moving to meet her. In 1867, fourteen years after Perry's treaty had opened Japan to American trade, we acquired Alaska and the Aleutian Islands from Russia, thus advancing our potential outposts half-way across the Pacific. In 1898 we annexed Hawaii, 2,100 nautical miles westward from San Francisco; and later in the same year, as a result of our war with Spain, we acquired the Philippines and the island of Guam. Only a few hundred miles separate the United States in the Philippines from Japan in Formosa. Guam, some experts say, is a potential naval base that could be made the Heligoland of the Pacific. In 1914 the opening of the Panama Canal lessened the distance in a military sense between the two nations by making our Atlantic Fleet available for use in the Pacific on comparatively short notice. This westward American expansion has inspired the remark that Japan has much more reason to fear the "white peril" than America has to fear the "yellow peril."

So much, in brief, for the story of American-Japanese relations as reflected on the map. Commenting on this phase of the situation the Chicago *Tribune* says:

> "The United States and Japan have been in a tense conflict for the mastery of the Pacific ever since the United States acquired Hawaii. That particularly aroused Japanese distrust. The background of the struggle is as plainly marked as ever any background of war was marked. The full consciousness of the American people is not involved, and the administrative direction of American moves is not considerate of consequences. Probably it can not be in a republic."

Among some sections in the population of both countries, Prof. G. H. Blakeslee tells us in his introduction to "Japan and Japanese-American Relations" (G. E. Stechert, New York), friendship began to give way to suspicion, and even hostility, soon after the close of the Russian-Japanese War, that is, about fifteen or sixteen years ago. Says Professor Blakeslee:

> "The immigration question was perhaps the occasion of it; but it was increased by opposition in this country to Japan's policy and administration in Manchuria and Korea. The fundamental cause was very probably the sudden awakening of the United States to the fact that Japan was no longer a mere picturesque land of Orientals which it could patronize at will; but was a powerful, proud nation, jealous of its rights and of its new-found position as a World Power. This period of friction, which might easily have passed without any serious result, was continued by the efforts of the jingo elements in both lands. . . . Certain American papers and politicians insisted that Japan was secretly planning to attack us, and war scares appeared at



SIBERIA
MANCHURIA
MONGOLIA
INNER MONGOLIA
KOREA (CHOSEN)
SEA OF JAPAN
JAPAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
YELLOW SEA
EASTERN SEA
CHINA
EMPIRE OF JAPAN
SAKHALIN
KARAFUTO (Japan)
HOKKAIDO
FORMOSA (TAI-WAN)
Peking
Tokyo
Port Arthur
Harbin
Vladivostok
Seoul (Keijo)
Shanghai
Kiaochow (Japan)
Tropic of Cancer
Railroads in China controlled by Japanese
Other Railroads
Former German cable lines
Other Cables
New Treaty Ports opened by Japan, underlined thus . . Sansin
ENGLISH STATUTE MILES
KILOMETERS
Map showing JAPAN and Possessions Mandates and Zones of Influence
Scale of Miles
JAPANESE MANDATE
AUSTRALIAN MANDATE
Longitude East from Greenwich

EMPIRE OF JAPAN

1. Japanese Empire in 1894 ☐
2. Additional Territory held as result of Chinese-Japanese War, 1894-1895 ☐
3. Additional Territory held as result of Russian-Japanese War, 1904-1905 ☐
4. Former German Territory held as result of the World War, 1914-1918 ☐

Territory under Japanese Influence ☐

5. Shantung 6. Fukien 7. Manchuria 8. Parts of Inner Mongolia and Northern China

9 and 10. Military Occupation

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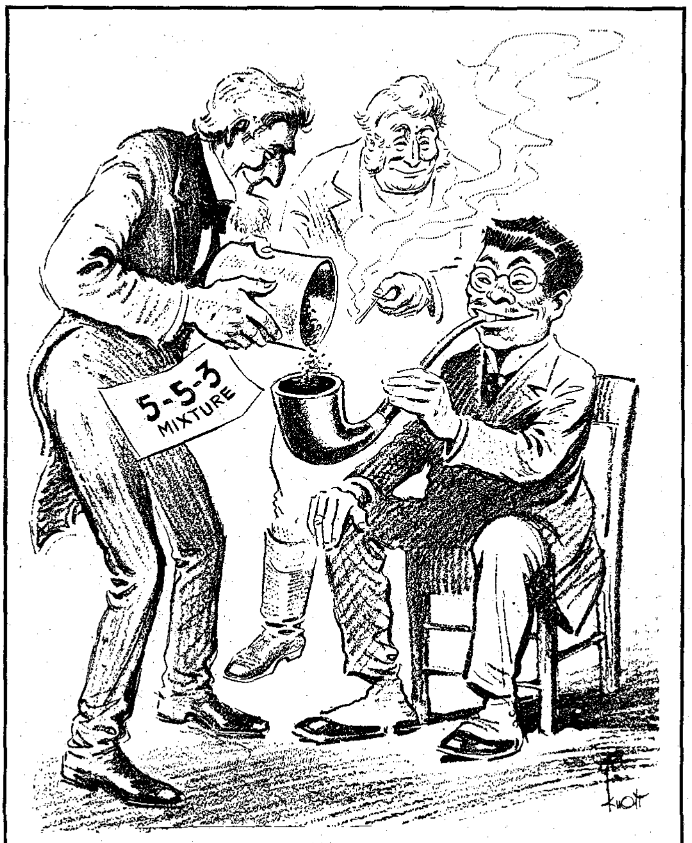
THE MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP WORKS, BUFFALO, N.Y.

periods suspiciously convenient for the advocates of an increased American army and navy."



THE PIPE OF PEACE.

—Knott in the Dallas *News*.

Summing up the American-Japanese situation as he saw it a year ago, Walter B. Pitkin, in his "Must We Fight Japan?" says:

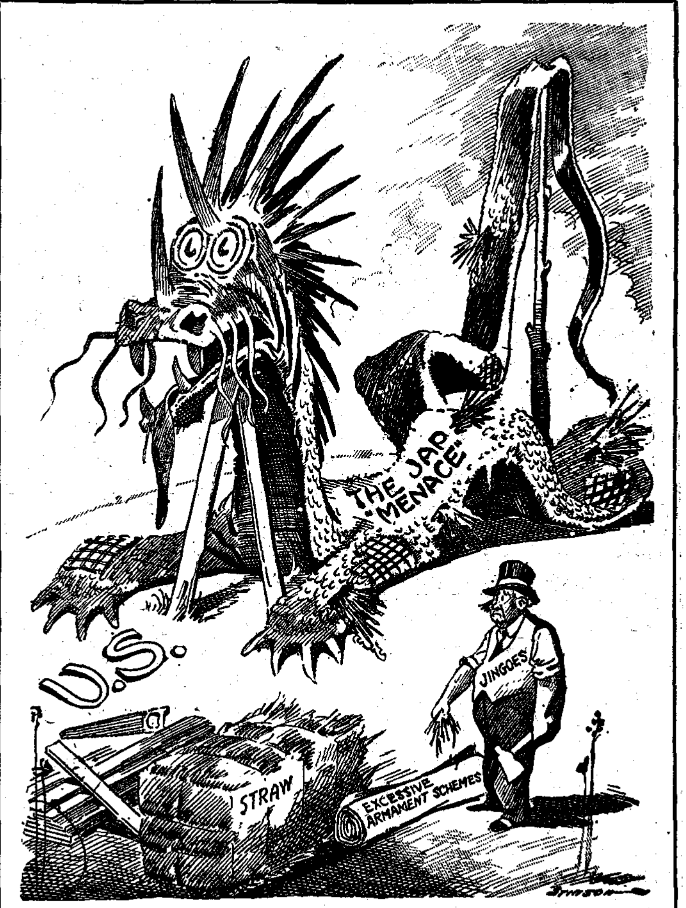
> "Japan is expanding in eastern Asia, Hawaii, and our own Pacific Coast. Her interests in Siberia conflict sharply with American international policies. Her demand for control of the German cable station on the island of Yap and the granting of her wish by the League of Nations have deeply disturbed our State Department. Her aggression in China conflicts with American shipping, commercial and diplomatic interests, with American moral sentiment, and with the American policy of 'The Open Door.' The enormous influx of Japanese into Hawaii has already made those islands Oriental in every sense save the political one, and within another decade they will be politically dominated by the Japanese vote. The lesser immigration into California has brought about a grave crisis."

In the Russo-Japanese War of **1904-05**, for the first time in modern history, an Asiatic nation defeated a European nation. Up to this time, says George Gleason in his "What Shall I Think of Japan?" (Macmillan Company), "I fail to find any act in Japan's foreign diplomacy which in the light of diplomatic customs current at the time can be severely criticized." "But in 1915," adds Mr. Gleason, who has lived in Japan for nineteen years, "began that series of undoubted diplomatic blunders which have turned such a large part of the world against the Sunrise Kingdom." The first of these blunders, according to Mr. Gleason, was her attitude after defeating the German garrison at Tsingtau. "Since that day," he says, "Japan has made every effort to strengthen her interests in the Shantung hinterland," despite her promise to return to China this captured possession. Early in the same year came her famous "Twenty-one Demands" upon China, which menaced our treaty rights in China and China's political integrity, and constituted the second and greatest blunder ever made by the Japanese Government." The shaded regions of China on the map (p. 25) came under Japanese "influence" through these demands. In the summer of 1918 "came the third blunder, the Siberian expedition," in which Japan "adopted in Siberia a policy exactly like that toward China" and "took advantage of the preoccupation of Europe and the confusion of Russia to extend her interests on the northern mainland." Her demand at Paris for the German rights in Shantung is listed as her fourth blunder, and her drastic methods of repressing unrest in Korea in 1919 "is the fifth blunder."

Kenneth Scott Latourette, in his "Syllabus on Japan" (Japan Society, Inc., New York), writes:

> "Japan has only two alternatives, to foster emigration or to become an industrial and commercial nation, exchanging her manufactured products for food and raw materials.
>
> "Many of the best of the vacant lands of the world, such as Australia, the United States and Canada, are closed against her, and this exclusion is provocative of irritation. Her only opportunity is in becoming an industrialized nation, and if she is to do this she finds her best natural market and source of raw materials on the neighboring continent. This gives her a great interest in China and Eastern Siberia. Her Chinese policy is her main interest in foreign relations. If she is to have a strong voice in Asiatic affairs and is to develop a large merchant marine for her commerce, she feels the need of a powerful fleet to protect her shipping and her communications with Asia.
>
> "In all these needs—room for emigrants, vigorous Chinese and Asiatic policies, and a large fleet—her interests have clashed with those of the United States."

Mr. Latourette further reminds us that during the war the United States was "the only Power to lodge even a semi-protest against the Twenty-one Demands," and that "at Paris American public opinion strongly condemned, on the whole, the transfer of the German rights in Shantung to Japan." These facts "seemed to many Japanese an effort to check Japan in her endeavor to realize what she deemed to be her legitimate ambitions." On the other hand, "many Americans believed Japan to have ambitions to annex Hawaii and the Philip-

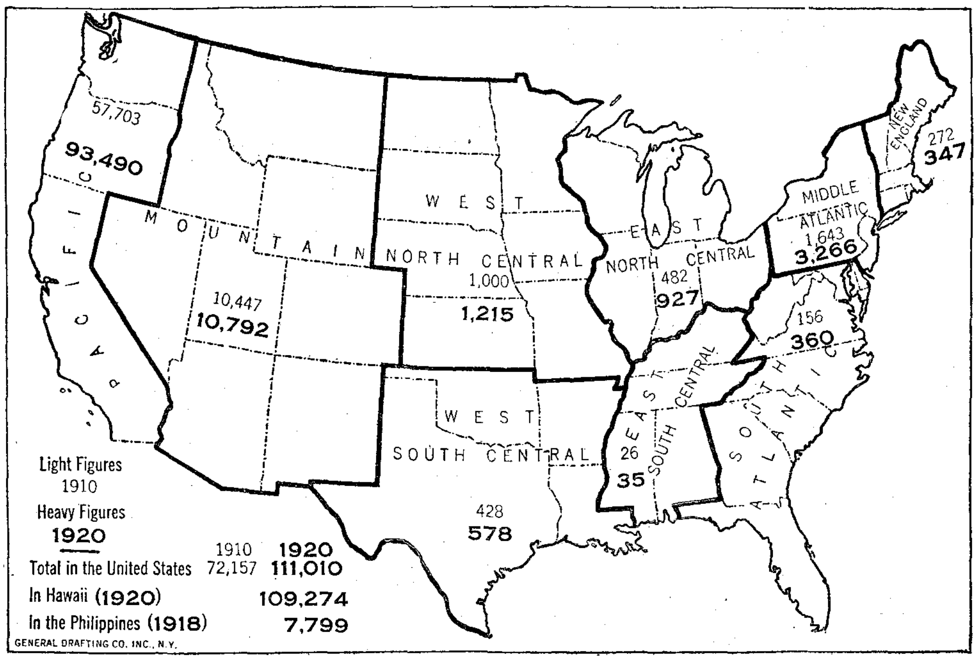


"IT LOOKS FINE, BUT I CAN'T MAKE IT BREATHE!"

—Stinson in the Dayton *News*.

pines," and "to become the kind of menace to the world that Germany was in 1914."

Glancing for a moment at this general situation from the Japanese point of view, we are reminded by Yoshi S. Kuno, in "What Japan Wants" (Thomas Y. Crowell Company), that when the United States annexed Hawaii "the Japanese population of the islands outnumbered that of any other race, native Hawaiians not excepted." "Nevertheless," he adds, "the Japanese Government readily recognized the annexation." All Japan really wants, says Dr. Kuno, "is to have a fair share of the rights and privileges on the Pacific." Such being the case, "the strong fortification by the United States of Hawaii, Guam and the Philippines has caused her great misgivings. She can see no reason from her own standpoint for the fortification of these islands unless the United States regards Japan as a potential enemy." In "What Japan Thinks" (The Macmillan Company), Baron Shimpei Goto is quoted as saying that not only has the stream of Oriental immigrants into America been checked, but "a counter stream has begun to flow into the Orient in the shape of American capital, with missionaries and publicists as its vanguards."



GROWTH OF JAPANESE POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

The census figures on the map are for the geographical divisions, bounded by heavy lines, and not for States. Thus the three Pacific States show an increase in their Japanese population from 57,703 in 1910 to 93,490 in 1920, or a gain of more that 35,000 in ten years. In Hawaii the Japanese form 42.7 per cent. of the total population. In the Philippines, on the other hand, the latest figures show less than 8,000 Japanese in a total population of 10,314,310.

The factors that make for misunderstanding between this country and Japan are discust by Baron K. Shidehara, Japanese Ambassador at Washington, in *Current History* (New York). There is first, he says, "the fear that Japan might attack America." This he dismisses by pointing out that "the Great War left America unassailable," and "no nation could make war on the United States without risking national suicide." To the alarmists who say that Japan could take the Philippines, he replies: "But Japan does not want them." Another assertion made by Japan's unfriendly critics, he says, is that she "plans to control and organize China into an immense Yellow Threat." But such a project, he explains, "is impossible of attainment":

> "First, an attempt to carry it out would bring us directly into conflict with all the other nations already holding great interests in the Far East. Next, we should have not only to organize and train, but to control China politically. There are centuries of history to show the impossibility of it. China has been invaded and conquered, and the unvarying end of the adventure has been the absorption of the 'conqueror' into the mass of China. . . .
>
> "But equal opportunity to help China and in helping China to help ourselves is not to be denied us. We are not self-sustaining, rich in natural resources, like the United States. Nor have we an empire, like the British, broadcast over the world to supply our needs. We have an area about equal to your State of Montana, and a population of sixty millions. Like England itself we must obtain our sustenance abroad, and our products must go to foreign markets.
>
> "China's markets and materials mean to other countries only more trade; to Japan they are vital necessities.
>
> "We have reached the stage of development where we must industrialize in order to preserve our existence.
>
> "Continental Asia has the materials for our trade. We demand the right to equal opportunities there, secure in the knowledge that in competing with other countries we need no advantages beyond our geographical position. We ask only an adoption by all concerned of the 'live and let live' policy."

But to many in our Pacific Coast States the Japanese present a domestic rather than a foreign problem. California in particular has a Japanese issue that agitates its press and permeates its politics. Mr. Latourette, in the "Syllabus on Japan," tells us that when Japanese laborers first came to this country they were welcomed because they were "hard-working, thrifty and law-abiding." Prejudice against these immigrants "first arose in about 1900, but did not become serious until 1905 and 1906." He gives the following brief summary of subsequent developments:

> "The center of the prejudice was in California, but there was also opposition to the Japanese in the State of Washington and in Hawaii.
>
> "In 1907 there was arranged the 'Gentlemen's Agreement' by which the Japanese Government undertook to prevent the coming of unskilled laborers to the United States. The Japanese have on the whole scrupulously observed this agreement; but they have seriously irritated the people of the Pacific States by permitting 'Picture-Brides' to be sent over. This practice has now been discontinued. Such Japanese as have entered the United States have for the most part not been of the groups falling under the scope of the prohibition.
>
> "In 1913 Californians became alarmed at the increase in the amount of land owned or leased by Japanese, and altho the proportion of this land to the total cultivated area of the State was small, they feared a Japanese invasion and in spite of the opposition of President Wilson, passed legislation which was designed to prevent the Japanese from holding land except on a short-term lease. In 1920 new and more stringent legislation was passed by California.
>
> "Unless born in the United States, Japanese are not permitted to vote. They can not become naturalized citizens. The status of those who are born in the United States is complicated by the fact that under certain conditions Japan may still claim them as her subjects, and that there is some agitation for depriving them of American citizenship.
>
> "The net result of the anti-Japanese agitation in the United States has been to embitter Japanese against America and to increase the dislike and suspicion of Americans for Japanese. There has, however, been an active and influential minority in each country working for good-will and mutual understanding."

JAPAN'S MIRACULOUS COMMERCIAL RISE

THE MOST ROMANTIC FACT about Japan has nothing to do with cherry blossoms, samurai, or templed hills; it is the fact that a people with an old Oriental civilization should, after centuries of non-intercourse with the rest of the world, become in the short space of an ordinary lifetime one of the leading modern commercial Powers. On a July day in 1853, the ships of Commodore Perry's squadron in the Bay of Yedo told the people of Nippon that a new day was dawning for Japan and that former things had passed away. To the masses of the population the coming developments were of course quite unseen. To the rulers of Japan they were far from welcome. A solemn conclave of notables which met at the call of the Shogun voted to remain in isolation. But despite the preferences of people, nobles and the sacred Emperor at Kyoto, the responsible rulers of Japan understood the language of Commodore Perry's guns. Isolation was henceforth impossible, because the foreigner who demanded Japan's entrance into the world of commerce could be kept out only by modern arms, which could be obtained only by commerce with the Westerner.

Moreover, Japan had to be Westernized in a hurry. There was no time to wait. The only way the Japanese Government could keep the foreigner from dominating the land industrially and commercially was to get the start of him. As Mr. W. M. McGovern notes in his recent book, "Modern Japan" (Scribner's), the country was threatened with economic invasion. To wait meant to allow the foreign merchant to usurp the trade and the financial independence of the country, and "once this has gone, as Egypt and India could have told them, political independence is not long in vanishing." So these far-sighted rulers decided to reorganize the nation from top to bottom. As we read in Mr. McGovern's book:

> "They it was who organized and reorganized the banking system, who opened model factories, who taught the people through them how to make matches, cement, cloth, silk, soap, steel, engines, and all the inconceivably many things which go to make up the framework of the modern industrial State. Not only did they destroy the old commercial system, and pass laws for the formation of limited liability companies and joint stock enterprises, but by threats and by promises, by grants and by subsidies, saw that they were successfully carried on.
>
> "Japan needed ships. She could not afford to wait for her merchants to gradually take an interest in maritime affairs. Foreign ships were already establishing routes of sailing, and in a short time would have secured a monopoly. Accordingly the Government forced the formation of three companies—the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Toyo Kisen Kaisha, and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha—poured money into them, saw that they were efficiently run, saw that a school was formed for the adequate training of maritime officers, passed laws giving them a monopoly of the coastal trade, saw that all the State-controlled industries sent their goods by these boats, saw also that the organization of these companies was such that trained and able men, and these only, had charge, and pushed their way to the top. Consequently the merchant navy of Japan is to-day one of the largest in the whole world."

In all this industrial development, as Professor A. S. Hershey notes in his book, "Modern Japan" (Bobbs, Merrill), Japan has been heavily handicapped by her lack of skilled labor, by her comparatively small production of iron, and by the fact that she grows neither wool nor cotton, all of which must be imported together with large quantities of machinery for her workshops.

When the Imperial power was restored in 1868, Japan had no real financial system. After much experimenting, by 1882 all irregularities had been ironed out, the foundation of the Bank of Japan completed the work of reorganization, and the present budget system went into effect with the promulgation of the new Constitution in 1889. After experiments with the gold standard, the silver standard, bimetalism, and inconvertible paper, the gold standard was adopted by the Japanese Government to become permanently operative in 1897. The currency unit is the *yen* (fifty cents), which is subdivided into 100 *sen*, of ten *rin* each.

The first Japanese banks date from 1872. In 1882 the Bank of Japan was given exclusive powers of currency issue and has since been extremely successful as "the arbiter of national finance." Government control over business is further exercised through three other semi-official banks, the Yokohama Specie Bank, which is the chief organ of foreign exchange and international finance; the Hypothec Bank, with its many local branches, which lends money on real security to aid agricultural development, and through which the Government can force farmers to adopt modern methods; and the Bank of Commerce and Industry, which performs a similar function for manufacturers and merchants, advancing money for new enterprises upon the security of bonds and stocks. There are also more than 2,000 private banks.

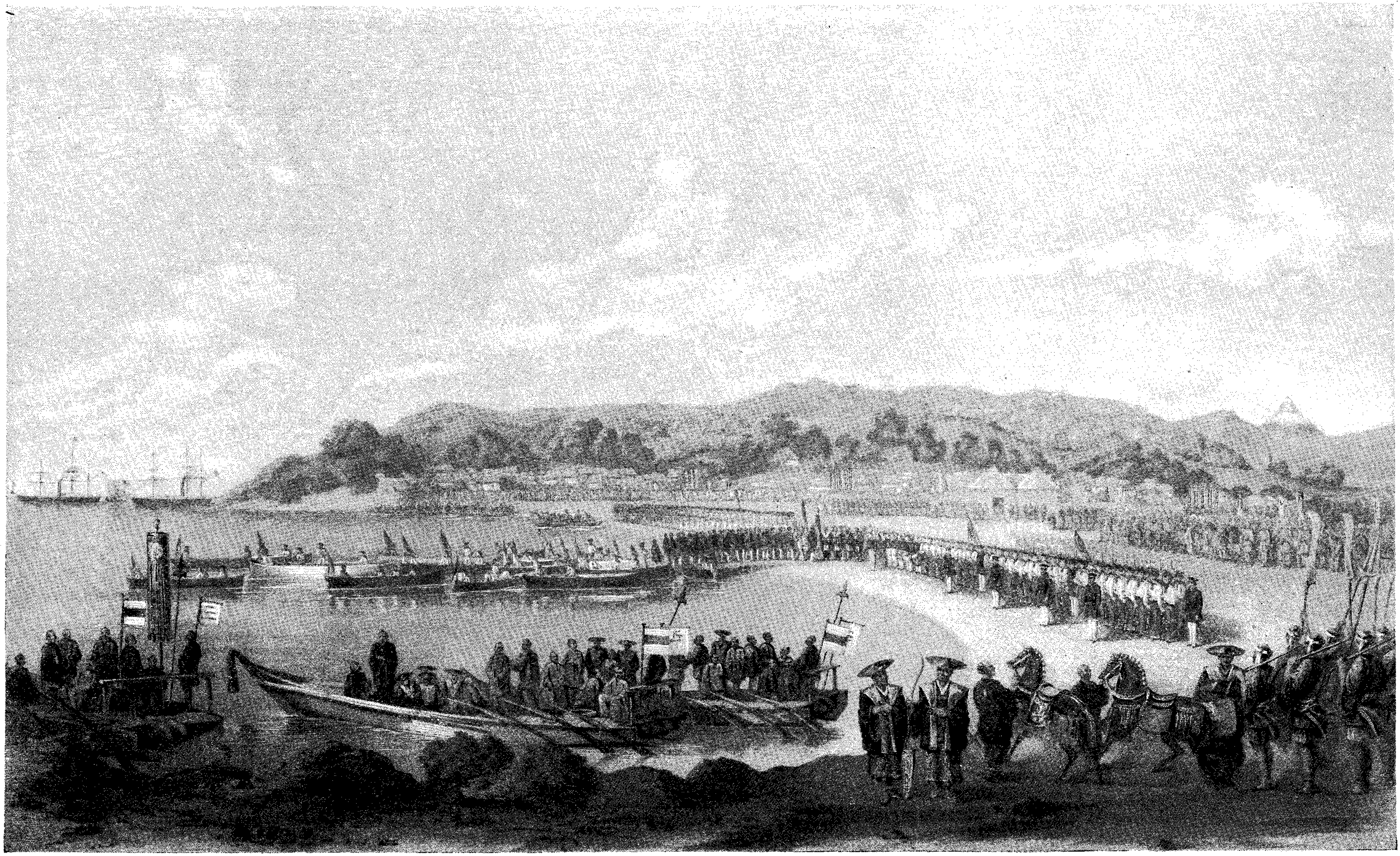
Japan's present taxation system includes taxes on land, incomes, certain businesses, registration fees, *sake* and other liquors, medicine, sugar and travel. In 1918, according to "The Japan Year Book," the average per capita tax was $3.43, local taxes raising the amount to $5.30. For the fiscal year ending March 31, 1921, the Japanese Government, according to "The Statesman's Year Book," raised 613,986,979 yen in taxes, of which 181,522,179 was raised on incomes and 132,445,486 on liquors. Japan has a revenue of over 500,000,000 yen from public undertakings, state properties and monopolies. Altho Japan made a small silver borrowing from Great Britain in 1868, the first real foreign loan was an issue of nine per cent. bonds in London in 1870. At present Japan's total national debt is in round numbers $1,500,000,000, about half of which is composed of foreign loans. Partially offsetting this are foreign loans raised in Japan during the war period amounting to over $400,000,000. At the end of last June the Bank of Japan had a gold specie reserve of more than half a billion dollars. The Government expenditures for next year are officially estimated at 1,562,000,000 yen.

Before 1878 there were no stock exchanges in Japan. The Japanese Government studied the subject carefully, and finally in 1878 the first Stock Exchange under the new Japanese law opened in Tokyo, followed by another one a few days later in Osaka. These are still doing business. There are now forty-two exchanges in Japan, four exclusively security exchanges, five which combine security and mercantile sales, and the rest produce or commodity exchanges. As Mr. H. C. Hugins reminds us in an article in *The Transpacific* (Tokyo), the Japanese exchanges are incorporated as stock companies and their own shares are very largely dealt in. The most important exchange of Japan is the Tokyo Stock Exchange. The Tokyo Exchange had its war boom and was then hit by the panic of April, 1920, from which it is slowly recovering.

Japan's foreign trade has been growing by leaps and bounds for the last quarter of a century, but except during the war years, exports have exceeded imports. The most recent available figures are given as follows by "The Statesman's Year Book":

1920 Imports	£233,617,478	or	$934,469,912
1920 Exports	£194,838,946	"	779,355,784
Average annual imports for five years	£160,000,000	"	640,000,000
Average annual exports for five years	£175,000,000	"	700,000,000

The figures indicate that America is Japan's best customer as well as her largest provider. The largest imports into Japan were, in 1919, from the United States, $383,000,000, from China, $161,000,000, and from British India, $159,500,000. In 1920 they were, from the United States, $436,500,000, from British India, $197,000,000, and from Great Britain, $116,000,000. The largest exports from Japan were, in 1919, to the United



W. Heine, Del.

Courtesy of The Japan Society, New York

COMMODORE PERRY'S EXPEDITION LANDING AT GORE-HAMA, JAPAN, JULY 14, 1853.

FROM A PICTURE MADE BY AN AMERICAN ARTIST WITH THE EXPEDITION, AND PUBLISHED IN THE COMMODORE'S REPORT.

States, $414,000,000, to China, $223,500,000, and to British India, $58,000,000. In 1920 they were, to the United States, $282,500,000, to China, $205,000,000, and to British India, $192,000,000.

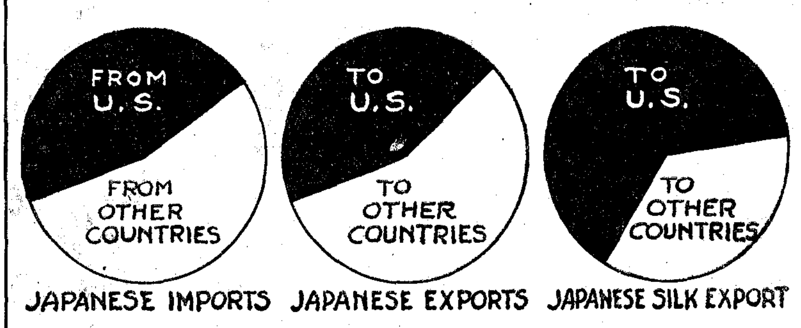
This means that the United States furnishes Japan with about 45 per cent. of all her outside supplies and takes from her about 43 per cent. of all her exported goods.

Japan's principal imports are raw cotton ($334,000,000 in 1919, and $360,000,000 in 1920) and iron bars, rods, and plates ($88,000,000 in 1919, and $101,000,000 in 1920). Next in order are oil cake, machinery, sugar, wool, peas and beans, hides, etc.

Japan's principal exports are raw silk ($312,000,000 in 1919, and $192,000,000 in 1920), of which the United States takes two-thirds; cotton tissues ($140,000,000 in 1919, and $167,000,000 in 1920); and silk tissue ($81,000,000 in 1919, and $79,000,000 in 1920).

In 1919, out of a total world production of 77,000,000 pounds of raw silk, Japan produced 53,000,000 pounds. Japan has well over a million acres devoted to the growing of mulberry trees for silk worms. Silk production is predominantly a home industry and about a million and a half families are employed in sericulture during the height of the season.

Among other important exported products from Japan are: Cotton yarn, coal, matches, silk waste and floss silk, copper, earthenware and glassware. China is the chief consumer of Japanese cotton goods, and is depending more and more upon her insular neighbor for such materials.



AMERICA'S SHARE IN JAPANESE COMMERCE.

Of Japan's 23,000 factories J. I. C. Clarke, in "Japan at First Hand" (Dodd, Mead), estimates that 50 per cent. are textile, 9 per cent. machine and ironwork, 11 per cent. chemical, 14 per cent. foodstuffs and beverages, and the remaining 16 per cent. miscellaneous. The principal manufactures at the end of 1918 are listed as follows by "The Statesman's Year-Book":

Woven Goods (Cotton, silk, and woolen)	1,189,000,000	yen or	$594,500,000
Japanese Paper	53,932,000	" "	26,966,000
European Paper	103,087,000	" "	51,543,500
Matches	39,689,000	" "	19,844,500
Earthenware	44,214,000	" "	22,107,000
Lacquered Ware	16,190,000	" "	8,095,000
Matting	19,272,000	" "	9,636,000
Leather	34,713,000	" "	17,356,500
Oil	54,504,000	" "	27,252,000
Knitted Goods	68,589,000	" "	34,299,500
Total	1,623,190,000		$811,600,000

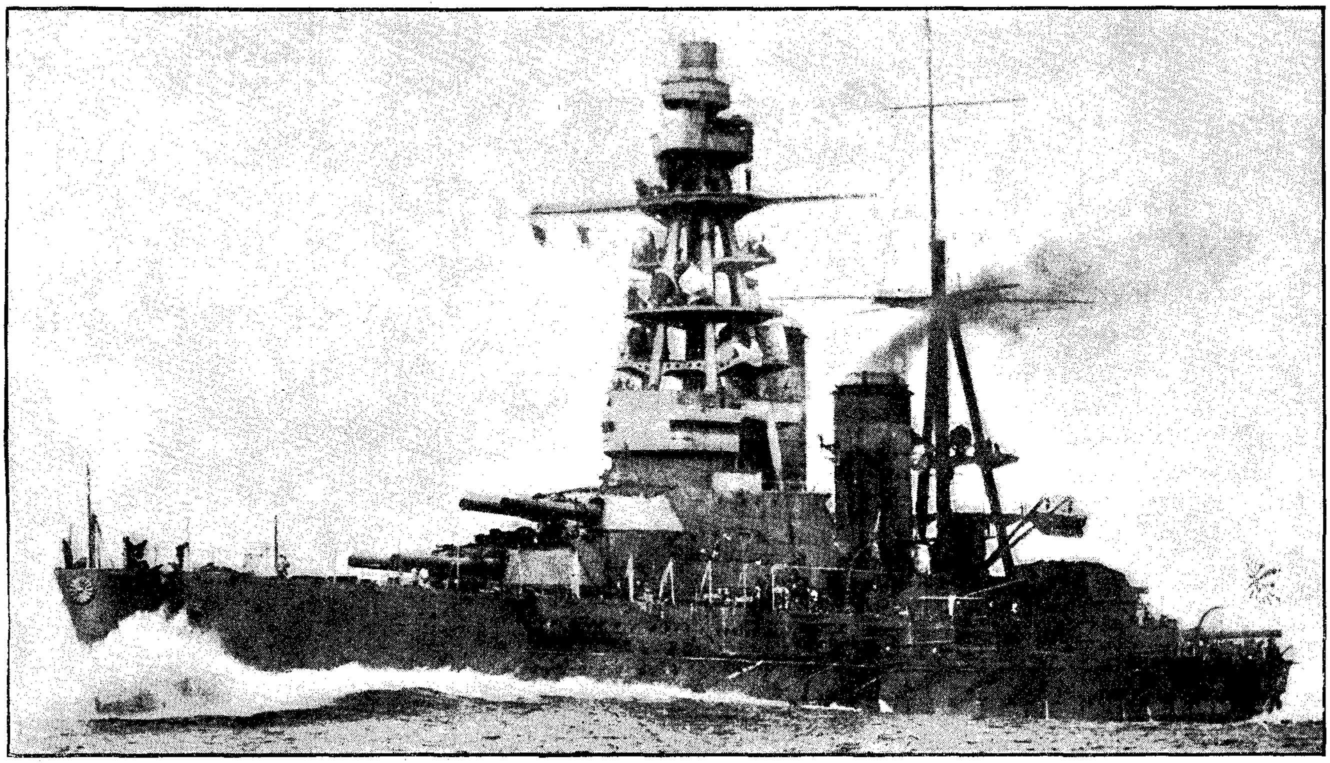
Japan's wonderful success in developing a merchant marine is shown by the fact that while in 1871 she had only 46 merchant ships with a tonnage of 17,948, she has to-day, according to this authority, 2,838 steamers of 2,694,800 tons gross, and 13,505 sailing vessels of European style, of 930,534 tons, a total of 16,343 ships of 3,625,338 gross tons, besides about a thousand vessels of Japanese style plying in home waters and in the China trade. The Government, by offering subsidies and bounties, has encouraged the building of passenger steamers and the operation of steamship lines to the United States, Brazil, and various other points. These lines are in a prosperous condition, have many fine vessels, and supply a service unsurpassed by anything afloat. The war has enabled them to obtain a firm footing in many trade routes, especially in the Orient, and they are now aggressive competitors of the American and British merchant services. Of the future of Japanese trade, Mr. R. P. Porter says in his recent book, "Japan, the Rise of a Modern Power" (Oxford Press):

> "Trade with the Far East increases at a greater rate than that with Europe and America, and is increasing at the expense of Great Britain and other competitors. Exports are increasing at a more rapid rate than imports, and the United States is Japan's best customer, China ranking next, and British possessions occupying third place.
>
> "An analysis of the figures shows that nearly half the foreign trade of Japan has been with Asia, Australia, Egypt, and Hawaii. In this respect history is likely to be repeated. One of the results of the European War has been the considerable increase in Japan's trade with China, India, and Australasia, in addition to large orders for war materials from the Allies.
>
> "At the same time it can not be overlooked that the United States remains the best customer of Japan, and, where price is not a bar to reciprocal trading, there is a natural tendency for orders to flow into the American markets."

The international communications of Japan were extremely primitive before the Meiji era. There were three great highways, the most famous being the Tokaido connecting Tokyo and Kioto, but there were practically no bridges. People traveled generally on foot or on pack-horses or in the kago, a sort of sedan chair. About 1870 the jinrikisha was introduced and this cart, propelled by man-power, is now the commonest mode of conveyance in Japanese streets. Automobiles are coming into use and in 1920, according to the "Exporters' Gazetteer" estimate, there were about 5,000 motor cars in Japan. The first Japanese railroad was built in 1872. In 1906 the Government embarked on a policy of nationalization.

In 1919 state railroads had a total mileage of 6,072 miles, and private lines, mostly light railway, totaled 1,941 miles. Practically all the Japanese railroads are built on the three-foot six-inch gage, and it has been decided to rebuild the roads on the standard gage. There were 1,659 miles of electric railroads in 1919. Japan has modern postal, telegraph, telephone and wireless systems.

Just at present Japan is suffering industrially, commercially and financially from the effect of the deflation which followed the war-time and after-war boom. Between 1914 and 1919, 14,000 new factories had been started in Japan; bank currencies jumped from ten billion to 76,786,000,000 yen; steamship tonnage increased from 1,600,000 in 1913 to 3,000,000 at the end of 1921. Raw silk was worth five times as much as January, 1920, as in 1913. Trouble began in March and April of 1920 and was precipitated largely by the falling off in the American demand for silk. Disastrous collapses, writes Mr. Charles Hodges, in *The World's Markets* (New York), "were averted only by the unreserved cooperation between the Japanese Government and business circles." Stock exchange values, notes a correspondent of the London *Times*, registered an average decline of about 70 per cent. But Japan, as the same item goes on to say, can weather the storm because much of her war gain is permanent. "Her manufacturing capacity has been greatly expanded; her business connections have been widely extended, and above all her flag is seen in every port in the world." The chief weakness in Japan's position, says the *Times* writer, is the refusal of the Japanese merchant to realize that prices must come down and come away down. The world will not pay what the Japanese are now asking for their exports and unless prices come down further foreign trade will continue to decline.



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JAPAN'S MIGHTY *MUTSU:* GREATER THAN ANY SHIP IN OUR NAVY.

Built in part by the *yen* and *sen* of the Japanese school children, she was saved from the scrap-pile by the earnest protests of the Japanese diplomats. Reports that she was named for Mutsuhito, the retired Emperor, are declared erroneous. *Mutsu* is a geographical name, like the State names for our battle-ships. She is of 35,000 tons, where our heaviest ships are of 32,600, but has the same armament, eight 16-inch guns.

JAPAN AS A NAVAL AND MILITARY POWER

NO OTHER NATION in the world has made such a rapid advance in the development of its naval and military power during this century as has Japan. Her claim is that she has done this purely in self-protection. In analyzing such a claim one must bear in mind the natural defenses of the country, in which respect Japan is peculiarly favored, the size of its territory, its population, trade, resources, etc. Japan is fortunate in the fact that, with the exception of the former German islands in the Pacific, over which she holds a mandate, most of her territory is contiguous and favorably located from a strategic point of view. Naval authorities agree that she is amply protected from aggression both by her distance from her possible opponents—10,000 miles from Europe and almost 5,000 from America—and by the conformation of her coast-line, which affords much admirable cover for submarine and air bases and which could be mined with great effectiveness. Vice-Admiral G. A. Ballard, a British expert, says in "The Influence of the Sea on the Political History of Japan" (Dutton) that the Pacific Ocean is "her great guaranty of safety, because she has learnt how to use it as a line of defense," and he holds her position to be "such that no Power in the world can seriously threaten her in her own regions in the near future." He adds that to attack Japan with any hope of success the enemy must have "a fleet at least three times as powerful as that of the defense." Professor Walter B. Pitkin, in "Must We Fight Japan?" (Century Co.) makes this statement relative to Japan's present standing: "Japan to-day combines the military power of old Germany, the naval efficiency of Great Britain, and the magnificent isolation of the United States."

A reference to the diagrams on the following page will be helpful at this point, as they show the relation of the fighting forces of the great naval Powers to coast line, population, etc.

THE JAPANESE NAVY

Under the three-Power naval agreement which has just been reached in Washington the Japanese have abandoned an ambitious and highly costly program of battle-ship construction for the near future. The Japanese plan, now laid aside, contemplated the completion, by the end of 1925, or thereabouts, of four battle-ships and eight battle-cruisers, which, with existing capital ships, would have left her at that time with eleven battle-ships and twelve battle-cruisers of the most modern type, a truly formidable armament. The agreement now reached gives her only two of these battle-ships, the *Mutsu* and the *Nagato*, and none of the battle-cruisers. The plan, as originally presented by Mr. Hughes, called for the scrapping of the *Mutsu*, but the Japanese were very anxious to retain this, their most recently commissioned sea-fighter, as a good deal of national sentiment was centered upon her, the funds for her building having come in part from

CAPITAL SHIPS TO BE RETAINED

Type	*By the U. S.*		*By Great Britain*		*By Japan*	
	Ships	*Tonnage*	*Ships*	*Tonnage*	*Ships*	*Tonnage*
Post-Jutland Superdreadnaughts............	3	97,800	3	113,000	2	70,000
Battle-Cruisers	none		3	84,700	4	113,800
Dreadnaughts...........	15	428,050	14	385,350	4	129,500
Grand Total........	18	525,850	20	583,050	10	313,300

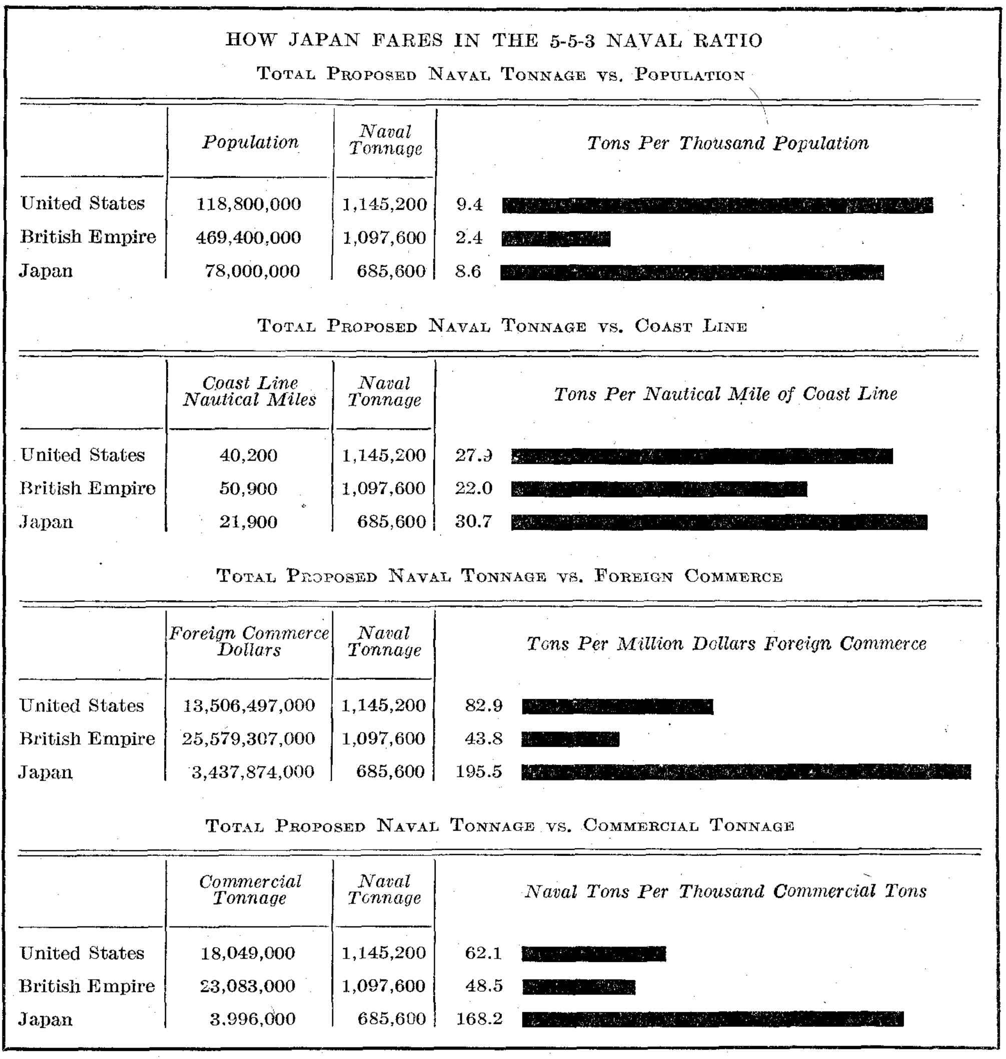
CAPITAL SHIPS TO BE SCRAPPED

Type	*By the U. S.*		*By Great Britain*		*By Japan*	
	Ships	*Tonnage*	*Ships*	*Tonnage*	*Ships*	*Tonnage*
Post-Jutland Superdreadnaughts............	7	291,800		none	6	264,500
Battle-Cruisers..........	6	271,000	8	214,900	11	379,550
Dreadnaughts	2	40,000	17	378,200	3	61,950
Older Battle-ships........	15	227,000	..	....	5	74,928
Grand Total........	30	829,800	25	593,100	25	780,928

patriotic Japanese school children. This wish of Japan's was finally met by the retention of the *Mutsu* in place of the older *Settsu*, which was added to the list of vessels to be scrapped. By this arrangement, when all these vessels are completed, the United States and Great Britain will each have three post-Jutland ships to Japan's two.

The table on page 31, condensed from one appearing in the New York *Times*, shows how the agreement reached by the United States, Great Britain, and Japan to limit their fleets will affect the capital-ship strength of all three Powers. The result of the scrapping indicated will be to leave the respective strength of the Powers, in the order above mentioned, in the ratio of 5-5-3. In other words, the Japanese naval strength will be 60 per cent. of that of Great Britain or the United States. This ratio is to be adhered to for a period of ten years, during which time there is to be a so-called "naval holiday." France and Italy, according to this plan, are each to have a capital-ship strength equal to 35 per cent. of that of Great Britain or the United States.

In considering these figures it should be remembered that the gun-power and not the tonnage of a ship is the measure of its fighting ability, altho the larger ships usually carry the heavier guns. The sea battles of the late war demonstrated that longer range was a tremendous advantage. This factor gave the German squadron the victory over the British off the coast of Chile, and enabled the British in turn to defeat the Germans off the Falkland Islands. In each case the victorious ships were hardly touched, their opponents being sunk before they could get near enough to do any serious damage. In the above table of vessels to be retained the post-Jutland ships of all three nations carry 16-inch guns, making them about equal in power. The majority of the British dreadnaughts carry eight 15-inch guns each as against the twelve 14-inch guns of similar American and Japanese vessels. A 15-inch gun is about 25 per cent. more powerful than a 14-inch gun, so the gun-power of these ships is nearly the same, but the range of the British ships is somewhat greater. The slightly greater total tonnage of Great Britain is offset by the fact that several of her ships are older than those of the United States.



HOW JAPAN FARES IN THE 5-5-3 NAVAL RATIO

TOTAL PROPOSED NAVAL TONNAGE VS. POPULATION

	Population	Naval Tonnage	Tons Per Thousand Population
United States	118,800,000	1,145,200	9.4
British Empire	469,400,000	1,097,600	2.4
Japan	78,000,000	685,600	8.6

TOTAL PROPOSED NAVAL TONNAGE VS. COAST LINE

	Coast Line Nautical Miles	Naval Tonnage	Tons Per Nautical Mile of Coast Line
United States	40,200	1,145,200	27.9
British Empire	50,900	1,097,600	22.0
Japan	21,900	685,600	30.7

TOTAL PROPOSED NAVAL TONNAGE VS. FOREIGN COMMERCE

	Foreign Commerce Dollars	Naval Tonnage	Tons Per Million Dollars Foreign Commerce
United States	13,506,497,000	1,145,200	82.9
British Empire	25,579,307,000	1,097,600	43.8
Japan	3,437,874,000	685,600	195.5

TOTAL PROPOSED NAVAL TONNAGE VS. COMMERCIAL TONNAGE

	Commercial Tonnage	Naval Tonnage	Naval Tons Per Thousand Commercial Tons
United States	18,049,000	1,145,200	62.1
British Empire	23,083,000	1,097,600	48.5
Japan	3,996,000	685,600	168.2

The Japanese capital ships, then, when the agreement is carried out, will number ten in all. Her strength in light cruisers, destroyers, etc., will be scaled down in proportion, as will that of the other Powers concerned, the number of the various smaller craft having a recognized ratio in all navies to the capital ship. The number of subsidiary vessels possest by Japan in 1921, as contrasted with those of the United States and Great Britain, is given by "The Statesman's Year-Book" as follows:

Type	*Japan*	*U. S. A.*	*Great Britain*
Cruisers	8	15	2
Light Cruisers	17	15	51
Flotilla Leaders	none	none	15
Destroyers	87	284	135
Submarines	23	103	96
Aircraft Carriers	none	none	3

AVIATION

Aviation in Japan has been developed on a large scale only since the war, but she has now a considerable number of planes of all sorts, and her flying service has some 500 officers who are either pilots or in training for the position. She has recognized the fact that the wars of the future may be largely fought in the clouds, and one of her recent writers expresses the view that sea-power and air-power are synonymous terms. Civilian flying, which was practically unknown in 1918, is now making remarkable advances. Japan has three aviation societies apart from military and naval associations, with a total membership of 14,000, indicating that she will very shortly take a leading place among the air powers of the world.

THE JAPANESE ARMY

The Imperial Army has, like the Navy, made very rapid progress of recent years. Prior to the Chinese War of 1894-95 its strength, according to Marshal Prince Yamagata, was 78,482 men of all ranks. At the beginning of the Russian War of 1904-05 it numbered 152,787, and at the conclusion of that war, 249,975. Hector Bywater, in "Sea Power in the Pacific" (Houghton, Mifflin) states that "in the 1919-20 session of the Japanese Diet, the War Minister, General Tanaka, on being prest to disclose the peace strength of the Army at that date, gave the following figures: officers, 16,045; non-commissioned officers, 28,369; privates, 228,317—a total of 272,731. The Army has not, however, reached the maximum standard of strength to which the Government is determined that it shall ultimately attain. Their program calls for an establishment of 41 army corps, with a total of one million bayonets, with corresponding additions to the artillery and other branches." W. M. McGovern says, in "Modern Japan," that it is hoped by 1930 to have not less than 740,000 troops in the first line, 780,000 in the second line, and 3,850,000 in the reserves.

The Prussian Army is the pattern on which the Army has been fashioned. Conscription, which has been in force since 1873, applies to all males in good physical condition between the ages of 17 and 40. In practise, however, recruits are not taken until they reach the age of 20. After serving two years in the infantry, or three years in the cavalry, or other branches, they pass into the reserve (Yobi) for five years, during which time they must undergo two 60-day periods of training. They are then transferred to the second line (Kobi) for ten years, being called out for two 60-day training periods. After this they form part of the home defense army (Kokumin) for two years and eight months, thus completing a total service of twenty years.

JAPANESE PSYCHOLOGY—THE SOUL OF JAPAN

IT IS HARD for the Western mind to form a clear estimate of Japan or the Japanese, since their methods of thought, their ideals, and their outlook upon life differ so materially from ours. As a nation, Japan has performed the seemingly impossible. Within the space of fifty years she has passed from the position of a supposedly barbarous country, scarcely more than a name, to that of a power of the first class, wielding an enormous influence in world affairs. Her armies have triumphed in three wars. Her commerce threatens to crowd all competitors from the Orient. Her administrative system is a marvel of modern efficiency.

Despite all this the white races know very little of the real soul and heart of Japan. All sorts of extreme views are current regarding the Japanese, from the flowery praise of the casual tourist to the sweeping condemnation of those who regard them as unalterably opposed to us in thought and purpose, and ready to take advantage of us at every turn. There is truth and falsehood in both these view-points. The Japanese are an Oriental people with an Oriental civilization, but they have adopted the best of what we had to give them and are making a wonderful success of assimilating our methods. They have their aims and their purposes, but these are not necessarily so opposed to ours as certain people would have us believe.

We are in the main a commercial people. The business man is honored among us. War and its uses are abhorrent to the majority of our population. We are, moreover, great individualists. Our personal success, our family's happiness, these for us are the big things. The Japanese are commercial also, but with them the trader is looked down upon. Until recently the merchant occupied the lowest grade in their social order. They have always been fighters, bred to the sword, and the soldier, the *bushi*, is their most highly honored citizen. *Bushido*, the warrior spirit, dominates the country and colors its every act. Sydney Greenbie, in "Japan Real and Imaginary" (Harper's), says: "No student of things Japanese would for a moment deny that Japan has traits and characteristics which would appreciably help in making this a better world, but along with lofty ethical conceptions comes the faith which has been christened *Bushido*, the faith of the sword, which is being inculcated in the hearts and minds of Japanese youth." The Japanese are essentially communistic. For them personal success, family life, the wishes or hopes of the individual, are as nothing compared with the nation. The State is the one thing that counts, to which all else must be subordinated. They, like ourselves, are a highly emotional people, but they have for centuries been trained to repression. Their seeming apathy in the presence of pain or calamity is a mask to conceal their real feelings. Lafcadio Hearn relates how he one day observed his Japanese servant when off his guard. The man's face, ordinarily composed and cheerful, was distorted by tragic emotions. When a cough indicated his employer's nearness it changed instantly and once more took on its normal smoothness and serenity. The Japanese are quickly aroused by such sentiments as loyalty, patriotism, and the like. Their response to beauty, pathos, or heroism is immediate. W. M. McGovern, in "Modern Japan" (Scribner's), says of them: "They have never attempted an acute analysis of right and wrong, yet we find that they have developed a powerful moral estheticism, a practical code of morals based on loyalty for the sake of the superior or for the State."

We are informed by Douglas Sladen, in "The Japs at Home" (Collins, London), that "the Japanese, to the very lowest, have charming manners—a polish like their incomparable lacquer, and said by old European residents to be no deeper, tho it is as difficult to chip through." Sydney Greenbie is inclined to ascribe their courtesy to innate sociability. He writes: "It is the latent ceremonial nature of these people, their love of crowds and dread of loneliness, their clannishness. . . . This spirit is obvious to the most casual observer. They ask you to dinner, and soon you have a dinner-party with geisha and comrades galore. Their houses are built with thin paper partitions, because they enjoy this mingling even when they seek privacy. It extends itself even to their prisons, where what we call solitary confinement is virtually unknown. This sociability has its expression in the courtesy for which the Japanese have been so far-famed. Self-assertion, which often compels a man to be discourteous, is as foreign to the Japanese as their kind of courtesy is to us."

McGovern states that "the spirit of present-day Japan is bound up in what may be briefly summarized in the following three phrases: (1) Militaristic nationalism. (2) Efficient bureaucracy. (3) Imperialistic socialism." He adds that "for weal or woe these constitute the soul of Japan."

To the Japanese the dead are of paramount importance, and his daily worship at the household shrine typifies his belief that the world of the living is directly governed and controlled by the spirits of the departed. Says Lafcadio Hearn, in "Kokoro" (Houghton Mifflin): "To Japanese thought the dead are not less real than the living. They take part in the daily life of the people, sharing the humblest sorrows and the humblest joys. They attend the family repasts, watch over the well-being of the household, assist and rejoice in the prosperity of their descendants. They are present at the public pageants, at all the sacred festivals of Shinto, at the military games, and at all the entertainments especially provided for them. And they are universally thought of as finding pleasure in the offerings made to them or the honors conferred upon them." Later he says: "The feeling towards the dead is one of grateful and reverential love. It is probably the most profound and powerful of the emotions of the race, that which especially directs national life and shapes national character. Patriotism belongs to it. Filial piety depends upon it. Family love is rooted in it. Loyalty is based upon it. The soldier who deliberately flings away his life in battle; the son or daughter who unmurmuring sacrifices all the happiness of existence for an undeserving or even cruel parent; the partizan who gives up friends, family, and fortune rather than break a verbal promise; the wife who ceremoniously robes herself in white, utters a prayer, and thrusts a sword into her throat to atone for a wrong done to strangers by her husband—all these obey the will and hear the approval of invisible witnesses."

Most attempts to interpret Japanese psychology have come to us from our fellow Occidentals. We have just been furnished with light from an authoritative Japanese source. Prince Tokugawa, the greatest noble of Japan, descendant of ancient ruling Shoguns, and head of the Japanese delegation now in Washington, speaking to an American audience on December 10th, said, as reported by the New York *Times*, that while much had been heard about Japanese militarism, the history of Japan's foreign intercourse had to be properly understood in order to "appreciate the circumstances which gave birth to what you may call Japanese militarism. He went on to say that when Japan began her intercourse with the foreign Powers "she saw a spectacle which offered no consolation to her," her immediate neighbor, China, being shorn of her outlying territories and being forced to create concessions and spheres of influence in favor of her despoilers. Japan's fear of the West became even stronger, he explained, when the very Powers that had compelled Japan to "give up what she rightfully secured from China after the Chino-Japanese War" began to take large sections of China for themselves. But times have changed," he concluded. "And the world is advancing. The policy of aggression and military rivalry is gone. Japan . . . is ready to walk abreast of the progress of the world, and she looks to the future with hope and confidence."

JAPAN'S RIVAL RELIGIONS

RELIGION IS LIKE TEA," once said a Japanese agnostic; it serves a social end and nothing more. But this criticism of religion does not speak for the Japanese people as a whole, for, at heart, according to missionary reports, they are essentially religious, and tolerant of faiths other than their own. In fact, religious liberty is guaranteed under the Constitution, and on the occasion of the convention of the International Sunday School Association in Tokyo in 1920 a Japanese editor, in contrasting the spirit of his people with that of some of the Western nations, described Japan as a "non-Christian 'Christian' country." It is only within very recent times, since the adoption of the Constitution that the law has been invoked against a religious society, and in this case the Government outlawed Omoto-Kyo, a lately founded hybrid cult combining communism, millennarianism, mysticism and patriotism, which has gained about a million followers, and publishes a magazine and daily at Osaka. Its radical tendencies more than its new religious teachings brought down upon it the Government's displeasure, which, it seems, served for a time rather to augment Omoto-Kyo's ranks than to diminish their number. The chief native religions, according to "The Japan Year Book," are Shintoism and Buddhism, both of which, "stimulated by Christianity, have been awakened from their dormant state in recent years." Shinto has thirteen officially recognized sects, all professing, as a cardinal article of faith, reverence to the deities and all observing precepts handed down by the "divine ancestors." In 1918 Shinto had 117,729 shrines and 14,692 priests. Buddhism is divided into twelve sects and subsects, of which Shin, Zen and Shingon sects each claims ten subsects, and Nichiren sect, nine subsects. The Buddhist temples in 1917 numbered 71,702, in addition to 36,247 minor temples; high priests and priestesses were 51,363.

Since the days of the zealous Xavier, the famous Jesuit priest who first carried Christianity to Nippon's shores in the sixteenth century, the Western faith, tho suffering a long interlude because of persecution, has exerted an influence more profound, it is said by missionaries, than statistics show, and "The Japan Year Book" informs us that Japan has adopted the Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A., temperance societies, and the Salvation Army. But during the sixty years since the opening of Japan, says *The Japan Advertiser* (Tokyo), as told in these pages on December 18, 1920, "less than one-half of one per cent. of the total population of the country have embraced Christianity," and "more than one-half of that half per cent. belong to the Protestant branches of the Christian Church from which the (Sunday-school) convention is drawn." Peaceful and successful tho it was at first, the invasion of Christianity, says H. M. Hyndman in "The Awakening of Asia" (Boni and Liveright), became fanatic and subversive in the hour of its triumph, and brought on a terrible war of religious persecution which ended in the expulsion of Christianity and the locking of the island empire against foreign penetration for 200 years. Now, however, it is again permitted, if not actually welcomed, and, according to both missionaries and native observers, is receiving that sincerest of all tributes—imitation by Buddhism.

No one can understand Japan, it is said, unless he studies the nature of the influence of ancestor-worship, which, creedless and innocent of the consciousness of sin tho it be, permeates all Japanese thought and warms the fires of patriotism. Every Japanese is a Shintoist in his sense of obligation to and reverence to his ancestors and to the Emperor, who, descended from the Sun God, rules by divine right. "Devotion to the memory of ancestors," says Hirata, "is the mainspring of all virtues. No one who discharges his duties to them will ever be disrespectful to the gods or to his living parents." Shinto will not share the fate which has overtaken the old national religions of Egypt, Persia, Judea and India, declares Dr. Genchi Kato, of the Tokyo Imperial University in "Our National Constitution and Shinto," and he invites students to consider how this ancient faith has succeeded in absorbing the strong points of Buddhism and Confucianism, thus growing side by side with them instead of being superseded by them, and how it seems to be deriving nourishment from Christianity. But, said Hamilton Wright Mabie in "Japan Today and Tomorrow" (The Macmillan Company):

> "Shinto is no longer a religion; it is a profound national sentiment. It never was a religion, properly speaking; but nature worship was combined with it to satisfy the cravings of primitive worshipers. It has no founder, no creed, no theology, no sacred book; it was a practise or discipline of love and gratitude, of remembrance and of patriotism. The Shinto shrine, in its integrity, is a simple structure of wood, undecorated, with a mirror standing on the altar symbolically enforcing the Greek maxim: 'Know thyself.' The genius of Shinto is national and patriotic; it has no explanation of the mystery of the universe to offer its believers, no code of ethics to impose on them. It has created myriads of deities, but they have been outside the life of men—more or less vivid personifications of natural forces; its only contact with reality has been its multitudinous apotheoses of men. It has taught one deep and vital truth—the unbroken continuity of a people, the immortality of a race. It has fastened thought on life and banished death in our sense of the work; in the older thought of Japan there were no dead; the nation through all generations was indivisible and undestructible."

But Buddhism "was the teacher under whose instruction the Japanese nation grew up." It came to Japan from Korea via China in 552 A. D., when it was already a thousand years old and had broken up into numerous sects and subsects differing from each other and from the original teachings. After two centuries of propaganda, it conquered the land and absorbed the religious life of the people. All education, according to B. H. Chamberlain's "Things Japanese" (Charles Scribner's Sons), was for centuries in Buddhist hands. "Buddhism introduced art and medicine, molded the folk-lore of the country, created its dramatic poetry, deeply influenced politics and every sphere of social and intellectual activity." But the Japanese as a nation "are now forgetful of this fact. Ask an educated Japanese a question about Buddhism, and ten to one he will smile in your face. A hundred to one that he knows nothing about the subject and glories in his nescience." Now, however, other authorities agree that an element of progress has been infused into the simplified forms of Buddhism with which the masses are familiar. Sunday schools, and 701 philanthropic, social, educational and religious institutions have been established, the total representing a combined property value of 1,692,135 yen. The annual expenses for 1919 were 989,983 yen, and the total number of those helped a little over 400,000.

Altho there are "stains on the escutcheon of Christian civilization," these, it is said, do not detain the discerning, open-minded Japanese from giving to the Christian appeal a respectful hearing. The zeal of Francis Xavier, who landed in Kagoshima in 1549, succeeded, we are told, in the conversion of about 1,000,000 people by the beginning of the seventeenth century. But a too frantic effort, which attempted to destroy the ancient religions, resulted in the temporary eclipse of Christianity, and more than 200 priests suffered martyrdom. The Roman Catholic faith is represented in Japan by four dioceses and three Prefectures Apostolic, with a total of 76,448 Catholics, according to figures furnished by The Society for the Propagation of the Faith, New York. The Protestants, according to "The Christian Movement in Japan, Korea and Formosa" (published by The Federation of Christian Missions), are represented in Japan by 110,012 believers, with 1,150 preaching places; 2,415 Sunday-schools, and 146,625 pupils.

THE ARTISTIC SENSE OF THE JAPANESE

THE FINE IRONY of Japan's position in the world of nations was brought out by the war. One of her foreign ministers has said, "As long as we consecrated ourselves to the work of an intensive civilization, as long as we produced only men of letters, men of knowledge, and artists, you treated us as barbarians. Now that we have learned to kill, you call us civilized." When we accuse Japan of developing "Germanism" it may be just as well to look at the question from her point of view. Stated by a sympathetic Frenchman, Paul Louis Couchoud in his recently published "Japanese Impressions" (John Lane Company) the point is made a little stronger for Western readers. "It will be essential to keep in mind the lesson inherent in this observation," he says; "to put on one side the formidable spectacle of Japan's growth in armaments and to penetrate to the characteristic traits of that ancient and original civilization to which she lays claim, and which she is prepared to defend, with European arms, against Europe itself." The first fact to emphasize is that "Japan did not await the arrival of Europeans in order to become civilized."

"In the seventh century of our era, when the Merovingian kings were dragged by oxen through the forests of Gaul, the flowering of the arts in Japan was equal to that in the Italy of the Renaissance, and the refinements of living were those of France under Louis XV. Since this epoch there have never existed in Japan the same stagnation and inertia which overcame China. Until about the year 1830, no matter at what given date one compares Japan with France, the former is almost always relatively in advance of the latter. It is the most erroneous of impressions that Japan has traversed in thirty years the ground which it has taken Europe ten centuries to cover. What she has learned from Europe since 1834 are the means of defense against the fate of Java, the Philippines, and Indo-China. Outside of this general conformity to the methods of modern armaments, Japan owes Europe two main systems of progression: in the first place, railways, which, France must remember, date not from the time of Charlemagne, but from that of Louis-Philippe; and, in the second place, the parliamentary system, which began to work on a normal basis in the various Western states only about the same time, and which is to-day scarcely assured throughout Europe. As to the developments of electricity, these date, practically in their entirety, from 1870, and the Japanese followed them and benefited by them at exactly the same time as the French.

"On the arrival of the European influences, therefore, Japan was less like a barbarian than like a man so fundamentally cultured that he is ready to absorb whatever of value comes to him from another world. It is sometimes said that Japan has assimilated the results of science, but neither the methods nor the spirit which has produced them. This is essentially erroneous. In physics, in chemistry, in medicine and in philology Japanese scholars are the equals of their Occidental brothers. It was a Japanese physician who isolated the plague bacillus, and it has been Japanese physicists, with their fortunate opportunities of studying a volcanic soil, who have developed to so great an extent the science of seismography. . . .

"In addition to the defense of her national inheritance, Japan is, therefore, also the guardian of the Indian and Chinese traditions. From the point of view of Mediterranean culture, it is Japan which synthesizes the civilization of the other half of humanity. Seen from this angle, her victory in the conflict with Russia was an indubitable necessity; for in the ruins of Japan all the concentrated survival of ancient Asia would have perished, and a whole section of humanity must have fallen to dust."

No people, asserts Mr. Couchoud, have so keen an emotion in the face of nature as the Japanese. Their national fête days are the festivals of nature:

"Take as an example the day of the fall of the first snow; the banks and the shops close, and one has the impression that the entire population, mounted on their high clogs, have climbed to the hills to admire the white miracle of the winter. In February, when the plum-trees break into blossoms beneath the snow, the people crowd around them in a fever of admiration which has the elements of a personal piety. The old trees, which are weary with bearing, are given the support of wooden crutches; and there is a general participation in an act of thanks for the vision of flowers and the scent of perfume during a still inclement season. There exists towards nature a ritual in the face of which other duties are suspended. In February, 1904, the plum-trees flowered a few days after the declaration of war, and the event was not less marked than in other years.

"In April, there is a solemn celebration of the flowering of the cherry-trees, the most fragile of all blossoms. In the chances of wind or of rain, their life endures but three days, and for this reason the delicate mist of flowers inspires the most ardent enthusiasm. Along the length of the river at Tokyo, which is bordered with cherry-trees, boats pass and repass in a wake of petals. . . .

WHEN THE CHERRY-TREES BLOOM,

The Japanese go out to admire, and "the delicate mist of flowers" inspires the most ardent enthusiasms.

The peach-trees bloom a little later. These trees, like the cherry and the plum-trees, are not trained to bear fruit. The Japanese have no use for the grafting which is an attempt to domesticate, and they love the flowers for their wildness. . . .

"Autumn is the season of the most ardent of celebrations, that of the moon. The hours of sleep are changed to day-time, so that people can be free to follow at night the vibrant variations of moonlight. A Japanese journalist who recently arrived in Paris made, as his first comment, the observation that beautiful as the city was, the houses were too high to permit one to see the moon; and on the nights of full moon, he could only betake himself to the *quais*, astonished to be alone with so much splendor.

"It is not such a sentiment for nature but rather its extension to an entire people which is extraordinary."

Some miniature poems of the twelfth and fifteenth century treat of this passion:

NOCTURNE:

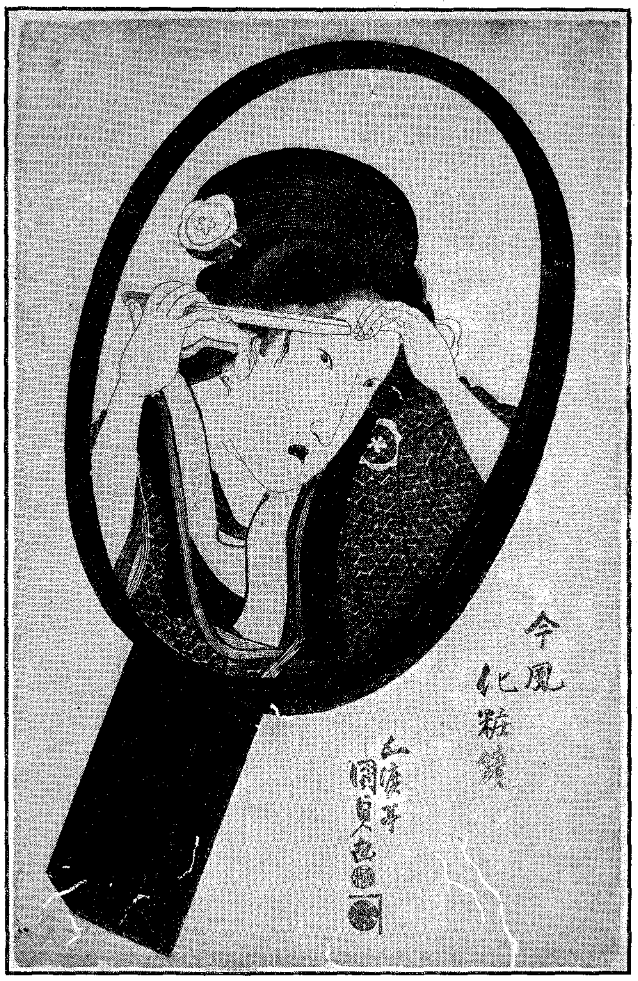
Midnight.
On the summit of Fuji
The moon has paused . . .
Only the mountain's smoke
Can soil the sky.

MOONRISE:

With a beating of wings
The wild geese tear apart
The little cloud . . .
As they utter their cry.
The moon!

THE SPRING BREEZE:
The sudden wind
Has flung
The tree flowers to the grass . . .
I thought that I saw leap
A waterfall.

AN OLD PRIEST:
In spring
I recommence my love
Of this illusory world . . .
In what future star
Shall I find such flowers?



A CEREMONY OF FEUDAL JAPAN.

A woman is represented by Kuni-Sada, the artist, as shaving her eyebrows after marriage. Reproduced from an old color print.

THE WILLOW:
At the breeze's breath
The willow's hair
Trembles and sways . . .
Always towards that same land
Where dies the spring.

The same "passion of the intelligence" which relates the Japanese to nature, exists also in his sentiment for art. In Western nations the artists are set apart in a class by themselves, due partly to the rigid necessity of developing a technique:

"No people know better than the French that, in Occidental development, to become a painter, a musician or a poet is not a matter of improvisation. In Japan a man partakes naturally of the elements of the poet, the musician and the painter, and without reflective thought. He paints and writes with the same pencil, and sees no distinction between the two modes of expression. His music is without orchestras, and still exists in the freedom of popular invention; and his poetry, in its intrinsic simplicity and brevity, is essentially denuded of artifice. The countryman who, after the harvest, sets out on a pilgrimage across Japan slings at his sash a little note-book for the reception of his impressions, whether in the form of a brief sketch or of three little verses. The art of art is diffused throughout the people; it has saturated their country and impregnates their life with vitality.

"The claim has been made that the Japanese art has not penetrated to the distances spanned by the European; and it is questionable whether it has exprest and exemplified the profundities of the human soul. But it is undeniable that it has better mastered the fulfilment of a social necessity, and that it diffuses more freely and more widely a general sense of joy and of beauty."

The Japanese has sent to the West many of the products of his art and with them must go a smile at the absurd uses to which they are put:

"The lacquer, the ivory boxes, the saber guards—are in customary use in their country of origin. The tiny vase which lifts its flowery contours in a European Museum often comes from the kitchen of a peasant. Since the diffusion of culture in ancient Greece there has not been so rich and disseminated a creation in the domestic arts.

"The influence of the Japanese production has been felt throughout the world. In the seventeenth century their lacquer brought new life to the form and design of French furniture. Those faiences of Kioto which a Dutch ship carried to the West gave the wings of inspiration to this art at Delft and, later, to the same at Copenhagen. Amongst painters, from Whistler to Degas, and amongst print makers, from Riviere to Toulouse-Lautrec, those who have saturated themselves in the Japanese sense of line are easily marked. If one speaks of the influence of Europe in the military development of Japan, it is an equal justice to recognize the Japanese influence in the development of European culture. But the too facile success of the too superficial Japanese production has weakened our mature judgment of their basic art. We give its familiar and more ephemeral examples too important a place, in the fashion of that historian of Greek art who was so absorbed in talking of the Tanagra that he forgot the Parthenon. We are only academically aware that Japan has formed, produced and perpetuated a great school of sculpture and a great school of painting and that, almost without exception, the perfected examples of both arts are still in Japan."

WESTERN SPIRIT IN JAPANESE ART—A hint of the contest going on between the devotees of the native ideals in art and the followers of Western methods is to be seen in the annual exhibition of the Imperial Fine Arts Institute. This show is one of the notable events of Tokyo life, and was formerly held under the direction of the Board of Education. The *Japan Magazine* (Tokyo) points out that since the time of the Russo-Japan War two tendencies in art have been striving for the mastery:

"First may be mentioned the reactionary tendency of artists producing genre pictures—a reversion to the Yamatoye style, with subjects taken from the Heian period—its customs and manners depicted in preference to those of modern life. One year, indeed, a whole room was devoted to galaxies of beautiful women.

"Since the European or World War, however, the revolutionary changes in conditions of life and thought have brought about corresponding changes in art—one of the most startling being the representation of 'Labor' in painting and statuary from last year. Perhaps this is the more noticeable because the new adjudicating committee evidently rejected many of the offerings of the more conservative painters and patently favored the school of realism in art. There were many of these painters who obstinately contended that the old school was the only orthodox one, but the disciple of realism to-day is having his chance to

'paint the thing as he sees it,
For the God of Things as They Are'

It is not entirely a bad sign, is it, that many of the pictures selected were of this type? While some were lacking in the perfect technique of the traditional school, yet it was noticeable that a new life had been infused into these representations of modern life which was hopeful and exhilarating."

In 1898 was founded the Fine Arts Academy of Japan with the aim "to conserve and develop the art ideals of Asia." It is the only serious rival to the Imperial Art Academy, and it has been effective in stemming the tendency of the end of the last century to imitate what the West had to offer.

UNDISCIPLINED JAPANESE CHILD LIFE

CHILDREN of Japan rarely see the warning finger lifted to check their animal spirits. If they beheld the whip that hangs over their Western brothers they would be amazed and find life a hard lot. The reason of this difference, as the late Lafcadio Hearn pointed out in "Japan, an Interpretation," derives from "the fundamental difference in the Japanese and the European conceptions of education as a means to an end." In spite of their having adopted a new system and program from the West, "education is still conducted upon a traditional plan almost the exact opposite of the Western plan." The chief feature of our system, "the repressive part of moral training begun in early childhood" is entirely absent. We think it important to inculcate the duties of behavior — the "must" and the "must not" of individual obligation — as early as possible. Later on more liberty is allowed. Personal effort and capacity are the safeguards of a boy's future career, and he is made to feel all this. "The aim of Western education is the cultivation of individual ability and personal character—the creation of an independent and forceful being." After saying so much, Hearn, who spent his later years as a professor of English literature in the University of Tokyo, goes on to show the interesting contrasts of Japanese education:

"Now Japanese education has always been conducted, and, in spite of superficial appearances, is still being conducted, mostly upon the reverse plan. Its object never has been to train the individual for independent action, but to train him for cooperative action—to fit him to occupy an exact place in the mechanism of a rigid society. Constraint among ourselves begins with childhood, and gradually relaxes; constraint in Far Eastern training begins later, and thereafter gradually tightens; and it is not a constraint imposed directly by parents or teachers—which fact makes an enormous difference in results. Not merely up to the age of school-life—supposed to begin at six years—but considerably beyond it, a Japanese child enjoys a degree of liberty far greater than is allowed to Occidental children. Exceptional cases are common, of course; but the general rule is that the child be permitted to do as he pleases, providing that his conduct can cause no injury to himself or to others. He is guarded, but not constrained; admonished, but rarely punished. In short, he is allowed to be so mischievous that, as a Japanese proverb says, 'even the holes by the roadside hate a boy of seven or eight years old.'

"Punishment is administered only when absolutely necessary; and on such occasions, by ancient custom, the entire household—servants and all—intercede for the offender; the little brothers and sisters, if any there be, begging in turn to bear the penalty instead. Whipping is not a common punishment, except among the roughest classes; the *moxa* is preferred as a deterrent; and it is a severe one. To frighten a child by loud, harsh words, or angry looks, is condemned by general opinion: all punishment ought to be inflicted as quietly as possible, the punisher calmly admonishing the while. To slap a child about the head, for any reason, is a proof of vulgarity and ignorance. It is not customary to punish by restraining from play, or by a change of diet, or by any denial of accustomed pleasures. To be perfectly patient with children is the ethical law.

"At school the discipline begins; but it is at first so very light that it can hardly be called discipline: the teacher does not act as a master, but rather as an elder brother; and there is no punishment beyond a public admonition. Whatever restraint exists is chiefly exerted on the child by the common opinion of his class; and a skilful teacher is able to direct that opinion. Also each class is nominally governed by one or two little captains, selected for character and intelligence; and when a disagreeable order has to be given, it is the child-captain, the *kyucho*, who is commissioned with the duty of giving it."

These little details which Hearn regards as "worthy of note" are cited, he says, "only to show how early in school-life begins the discipline of opinion, the pressure of the common will, and how perfectly this policy accords with the ethical traditions of the race." Then going on:

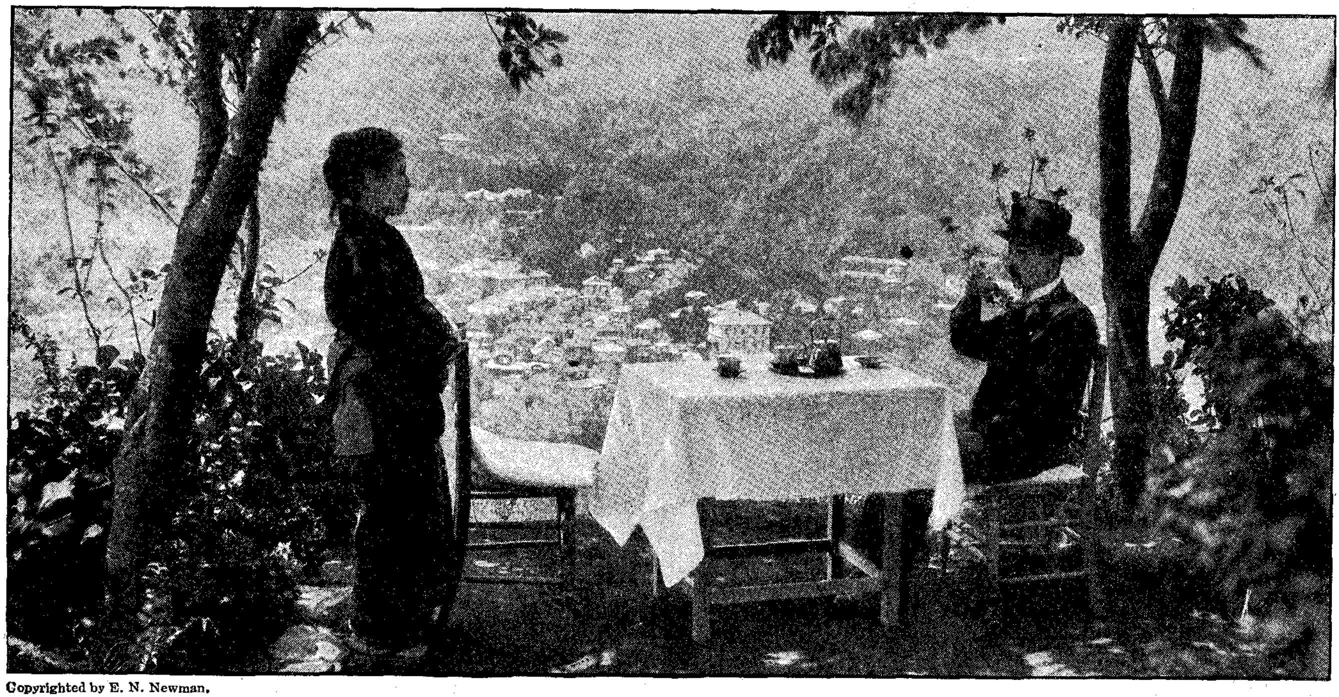
LITTLE MAIDS FROM SCHOOL,

Who seem to be undergoing a process of Westernizing that represses their natural exuberance.

"In higher classes the pressure slightly increases; and in higher schools it is very much stronger; the ruling power always being class-sentiment, not the individual will of the teacher. In middle schools the pupils become serious; class-opinion there attains a force to which the teacher himself must bend, as it is quite capable of expelling him for any attempt to override it. Each middle-school class has its elected officers, who represent and enforce the moral code of the majority—the traditional standard of conduct. (This moral standard is deteriorating; but it survives everywhere to some degree.)

"Fighting or bullying are yet unknown in Japanese schools of this grade for obvious reasons: there can be little indulgence of personal anger, and no attempt at personal domination, under a discipline enforcing a uniform manner of behavior. It is never the domination of the one over the many that regulates class-life: it is always the rule of the many over the one—and the power is formidable. The student who consciously or unconsciously offends class-sentiment will suddenly find himself isolated—condemned to absolute solitude. No one will speak to him or notice him even outside of the school, until such time as he decides to make a public apology, when his pardon will depend upon a majority vote.

"Such temporary ostracism is not unreasonably feared, because it is regarded even outside of student-circles as a disgrace; and the memory of it will cling to the offender during the rest of his career. However high he may rise in official or professional life in after years, that fact that he was once condemned by the general opinion of his schoolmates will not be forgotten—tho circumstances may occur which will turn the fact to his credit. . . . Under all circumstances, a certain formal demeanor is exacted by tradition. Everybody watches everybody: eccentricities or singularities are quickly marked and quietly suppressed."



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THE NEW AND THE OLD JAPAN AT LUNCHEON ON A PICTURESQUE HILLSIDE.

The respectful, traditionally-clothed Japanese woman, the polished gentleman in his "European" clothes, the toy-like town in the distance—all are typical of the little island Kingdom which has measured up to its name of "Great Japan."

ODD FOLKS AND WAYS IN JAPAN

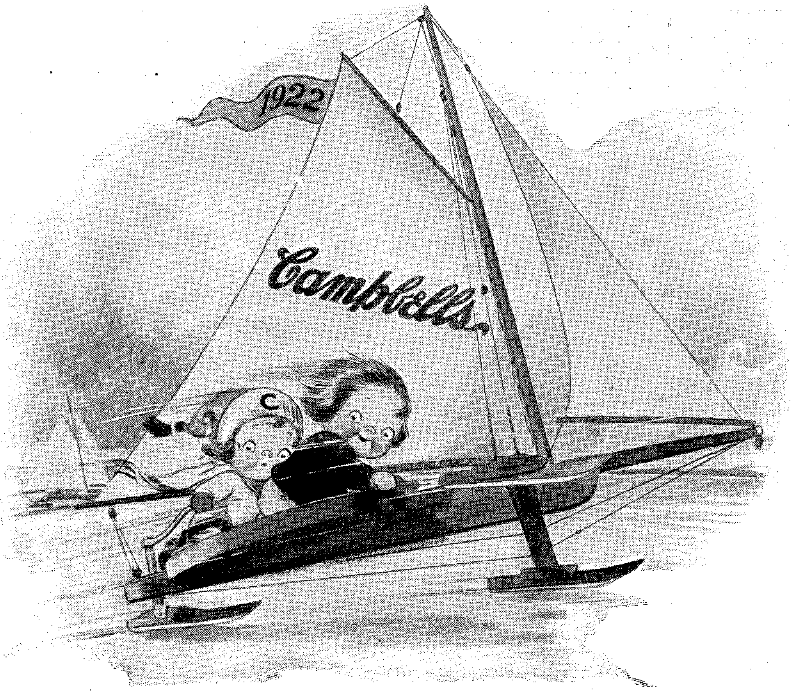
"QUEER, BUT CUTE," is the American verdict, delivered by an overwhelming majority of plain American citizens, on Japan and all things Japanese. So at least numerous exploring journalists, traveling observers, students and philosophers assure us in the various volumes on Japan that have lately constituted a large part of publishers' lists. This feeling, of course, is not quite the same along our Pacific coast, where the Jap is seen at close hand and where, it is complained, he is so much out of place that he loses most of the appeal he may have in his proper environment. An island kingdom of two-acre farms, a country of miniature paper houses made to withstand earthquake shocks and periodically renewed when destroyed by the frequent and expected fires, a people who do most things backward, according to the American view, and only lately emerged from a state of civilization almost as remote and unusual as one might find on the moon—here are facts enough to form a basis for that "Asiatic Mystery" of which the Western world has heard so much. Getting down beneath the crust of convention, however, "Where is the 'Asiatic Mystery'?" asks Joseph I. C. Clarke, author of one of the most recent and highly considered volumes on the Japanese people ("Japan at First Hand," Dodd, Mead). "I had been warned that I would never be able to understand the Japanese," he writes; "that, behind all appearances, was the mystery of the East, impenetrable to Western eyes and understanding." He demurs:

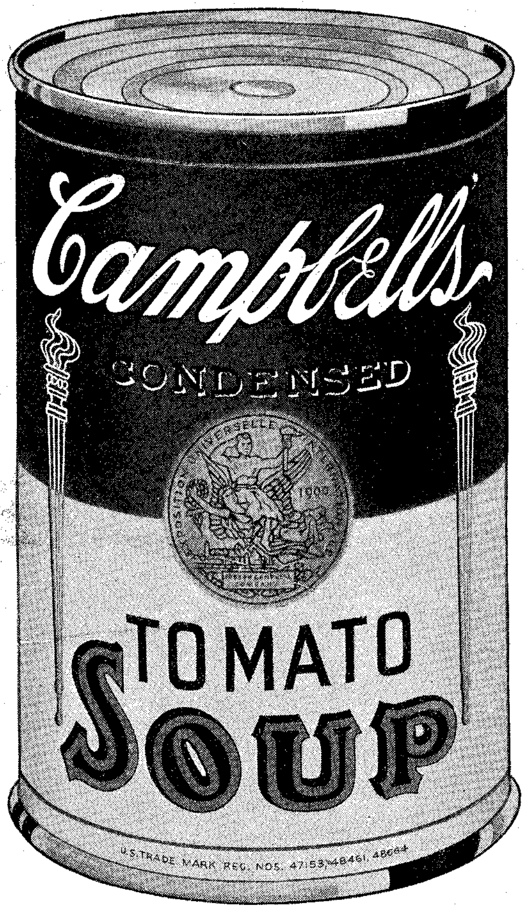
> "My observation leads me to the reverse conclusion. The Japanese people are first of all intensely human as we understand the word, with virtues and frailties like our own, with our motives of action and directions of interest. They laugh heartily; you can hear it all around you. They weep, too, but it is a point of honor or custom or etiquette to do it secretly when they can. Sometimes, alas, they must out with it.
>
> "I was at a marionette show at Osaka. The marionettes are one-third size and very lifelike, but they are manipulated by men standing behind them in full sight of the audience. It was a medieval play of Masaoka, a mother of Spartan quality who, out of loyalty to her prince, felt obliged to stand by dumb and stoical while her babe was murdered before her eyes. Soon the murderers departed, leaving her alone.
>
> "The mother rose warily, looked about stealthily, then sprang suddenly upon the body of her child and hugged it to her breast. The crowded audience, men and women, burst into tears. Sobs were heard on all sides, and the group of geishas, twenty or more, seated near the stage and looking like a great bed of chrysanthemums, sobbed the loudest of all. Never was there more weeping at 'Madame X.'
>
> "Yes, they weep.
>
> "They love and toil, toil unremittingly. They honor their parents; the family is a living unit, with quite a domestic government arranging things in an orderly way. They are intensely patriotic. They are markedly polite and hospitable. They are scrupulously clean; every Japanese takes a hot bath daily. They dress decently. They are thrifty; they are keen traders. They are imbued with the spirit of progress. They learn quickly and study with avidity."

Nevertheless, objects Julian Street, the magazine writer and journalistic observer of things in general, the Japanese are full of "reversed ideas." There is a good deal more to the "Asiatic Mystery," he announces in his current volume, "Mysterious Japan" (Doubleday Page), than the "language barrier" which Mr. Clarke finds so important. "On the day of my arrival in Japan," he writes:

> "I started a list of things which according to our ideas the Japanese do backwards—or which according to their ideas we do backwards. I suppose that every traveler in Japan has kept some such record. My list, beginning with the observation that their books commence at what we call the back, that the lines of type run down the page instead of across, and that 'foot-notes' are printed at the top of the page, soon grew to considerable proportions. Almost every day I had been able to add an item or two, and every time I did so I found myself playing with the fancy that such contrarieties ought in some way to be associated with the fact that we stand foot-to-foot with the Japanese upon the globe.
>
> "The Japanese method of beckoning would, to us, signify 'go way'; boats are beached stern foremost; horses are backed into their stalls; sawing and planing are accomplished with a pulling instead of a driving motion; keys turn in their locks in a reverse direction from that customary with us. In the Japanese game of Go, played on a sort of checkerboard, the pieces are placed not within the squares but over the points of linear intersection. During the day Japanese houses, with their sliding walls of wood and paper, are wide open, but at night they are enclosed with solid board shutters and people sleep practically without ventilation. At the door of a theater or a restaurant the Japanese check their shoes instead of their hats; their sweets, if they come at all, are served early in the meal instead of toward the end; men do their *sake* drinking before rather than after the meal, and instead of icing the national beverage, they heat it in a kettle. Action in the theater is modeled not on life but on

I am the skipper of this little clipper
She's queen of the ice-boat fleet!
Her name is a winner on ice or at dinner—
It stands for the soup we all eat!

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the movements of dolls in marionette shows, and in the classic 'No' drama the possibility of showing emotion by facial expression is eliminated by the use of carved wooden masks.

"Instead of slipping her thread through the eye of her needle a Japanese women slips the eye of her needle over the point of her thread; she reckons her child one year old on the day it is born and two years old on the following New Year's Day. Thus, when an American child born on December thirty-first is counted one day old, a Japanese child born on the same day is counted two years old.

Photograph by Ewing Galloway.

TOKYO ADVERTISING, AMERICAN FLAVOR.

The Japanese have acquired business methods from the Western world, and especially from their increasing contact with America. They are not called "the Yankees of the East" for nothing.

"Once when I was dining at the house of a Japanese family who had resided for years in New York, their little daughter came into the room. Hearing her speaking English, I asked:

" 'How old are you?'

" 'Five and six,' she answered. Then she added, by way of explanation, that five was her 'American age' and six her 'Japanese age.' "

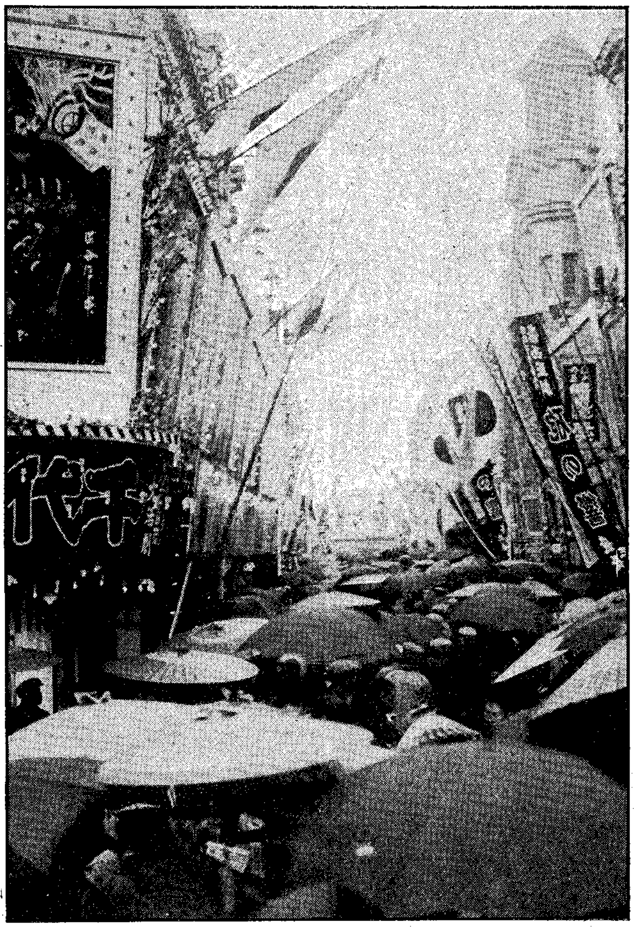
Mr. Street joins other travelers in testifying the Japanese, like the English, are persistent bathers, but whereas the English take cold baths the Japanese bathe in water so hot that we could hardly stand it. And when they have bathed they dry themselves with a small, damp towel, which they use as a sort of mop. Also—

"Like the English they drive to the left of the road. There is much to be said about that, but some of their other customs of the road surprize one. Wherever they have not been 'civilized' out of their native courtesy you will find that one chauffeur dislikes to overtake and pass another. Surely to an American this is an inversion! When a procession of automobiles is going along a road and one of them is for some reason required to stop, the cars which follow do not blow their horns and dash by in delight and a cloud of dust, but draw up behind the stationary car; and if it becomes necessary for them to go on, the chauffeurs who do so apologize for passing. This custom, which is dying out, comes, I fancy, from that of ricksha-men, who never overtake and pass each other on the road, but always fall in behind the slowest runner, getting their pace from him, protecting him against the complaints which his passenger would make if others were continually coming up behind and going by."

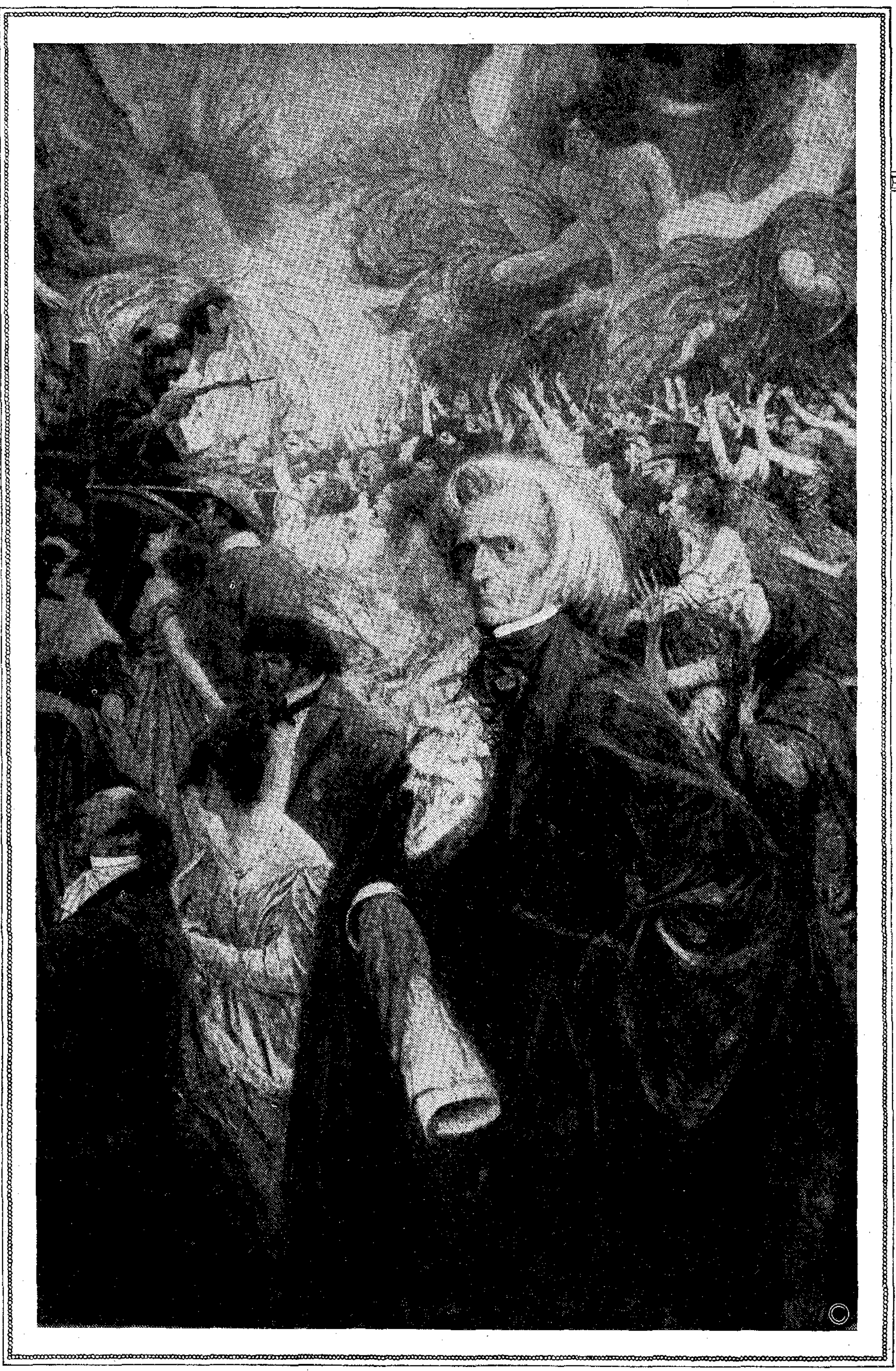
There is an etiquette of leisureliness in the land, except where European "hustle," chiefly American "hustle," has penetrated and been absorbed by the remarkably adaptable Japanese population. They are not called "Yankees of the East" for nothing. A business deal that a few years ago would have taken weeks, if not months, reports Joseph Dautremer, in his volume "The Japanese Empire and Its Economic Conditions" (Unwin, London), is now put through with a snappiness characteristic of Broadway. But, side by side with modern "pep" appear a hundred evidences of a very ancient delicacy and courtesy. These are survivals from the time of which a Japanese professor writes: "While Christendom was struggling with Medievalism, the Buddhaland was a great garden of culture, where each flower of thought bloomed in individual beauty." The professor's view presented in "The Awakening of Japan," by Okakura-Kakuzo, former director of the Imperial Art School at Tokyo, is criticized as too optimistic by American reviewers, but the "flowers of thought" and other flowers, of which he tells, bloom in Japan to-day. There is a cult for the very arrangement of flowers, we are told by Mr. Street. For instance, he writes:

"That grouping of flowers in a bamboo vase, which you find so satisfying, is not the result of any fancy of the moment, but is the product of an elaborate art, dating back at least five centuries. Flower Arrangement is part of the curriculum of girls' schools and is one of the accomplishments of every lady. Hundreds of books have been written on the art and there are thousands of professional teachers of it. It has, you are informed, a philosophy of its own. Confucianism is invoked. The Universe is represented by three sprays of different height—an effect often found also in plantings in Japanese gardens. The tallest spray, standing in the middle, symbolizes Heaven; the shortest, Earth; the intermediate, Man. There may be five, seven or nine sprays, but the principle of Heaven, Earth and Man must be preserved. There must never be an even number of sprays, and four is a number to be avoided above all others, since *shi*, the Japanese word for 'four,' also means 'death.' "

The so-called "Tea Ceremony" is closely allied with the rules for flower arrangement. The ceremony is said by one authority, Adachi Kinnosuki, of the New York *World*, to have originated in the need for suppressing the pugnacious spirits of old-time Japanese warriors. Since one rule of the ceremony provided that all the participants should sit down on their feet—presumably so that they would not be able to start trouble readily—Mr. Adachi credits the ceremony, also, with helping


BANNERS, UMBRELLAS, AND MOVIES.

A street in a Japanese city, with the typical low buildings on either side, filled with an afternoon crowd, mostly bound for the movie shows that occupy almost a solid block in this neighborhood.



BERLIOZ
and the
Fantastic Symphony

Painted for the
Steinway
Collection
by Harvey Dunn

STEINWAY

THE INSTRUMENT OF THE IMMORTALS

THREE score years ago a new genius flashed upon the musical world. He was a composer, not of musical scores, but of musical instruments. His name was Henry Steinway—his masterwork was a piano. No sooner was his instrument given to the world than it was hailed as America's first great contribution to musical art. Hector Berlioz, he of the flaming locks and flaming soul, was one of the first of the masters to hear the Steinway. Forthwith he wrote to its creator: "You have contributed to music a progress for which all true artists are infinitely indebted to you." One by one the masters heard the Steinway, or played it, and chose it for their own. Wagner, Liszt, Rubinstein, Gounod—these were only a few of those who came under the spell of Steinway tone. From that day to this the Steinway has been the instrument which the world has recognized as the piano of pianos. The music of the Immortals and the instrument of the Immortals live on together. In homes where you find the one, there also is the other.

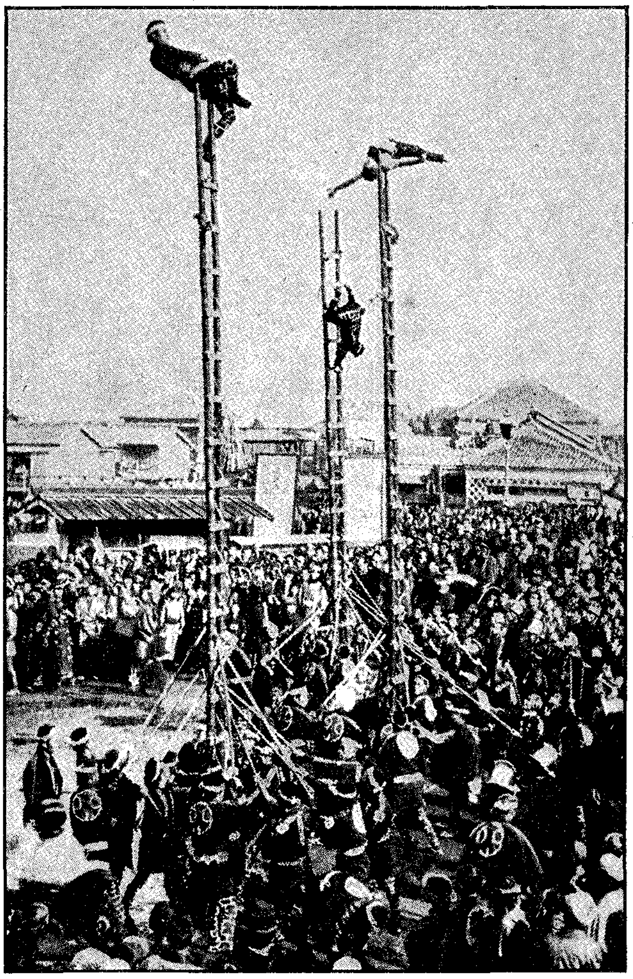
Steinway & Sons and their dealers have made it conveniently possible for music lovers to own a Steinway.
Prices: $875 and up, plus freight at points distant from New York.

STEINWAY & SONS, Steinway Hall, 109 E. 14th Street, New York

to make the Japanese more short-legged than they would be otherwise. Mr. Street gives this lively account of the custom:

"Ceremonial Tea has practically nothing to do with ordinary tea-drinking. The very tea used for the purpose is not like other tea. It comes in the form of fine green powder, which is placed in a special sort of bowl in a special sort of way, whereafter water of exactly the right temperature and quantity is added, and the mixture is whipt to a creamy froth with a fine bamboo brush, manipulated in a special manner. Great stress is laid upon the frame of mind brought into the tea-room, as well as on the etiquette and technique governing every detail connected with the making and drinking of the tea. The bowl is passed and received according to exact rules, and there is profound bowing back and forth. First it circulates as a loving-cup among the guests; later a special bowl is served to each in turn. On accepting the bowl the guest revolves it gently in both hands; then with as much of the calm dignity of a Zen Buddhist as he is able to exhibit, he raises it and takes a large sip. Removing the bowl from his lips he pauses meditatively; then repeats the process. Etiquette demands that when three large sips have been taken there shall remain in the bowl enough tea to make a small sip. In disposing of this final draught great gusto must be shown. The head is thrown back in indication of eagerness to drain the last drop, and the tea is drawn into the mouth with a sucking sound which advertises the delight of the drinker.

"The second night afterward he may be able to sleep. Ceremonial Tea is potent. Nor is its potency diminished by the fact that the hand which makes and serves it is a characteristically exquisite little Japanese hand, set off by the long soft sleeve of a flowered silk kimono."



From "Everyday Japan" (Cassell).

NOT CIRCUS PERFORMERS, MERELY FIREMEN.

However, with the introduction of Western fire-fighting methods, a good many of these acrobatic Japanese firemen may find American circuses and vaudeville acts a good substitute for their old jobs. Japanese cities, due to the flimsy construction made necessary by frequent earthquakes, have a way of burning down every little while.

The "exquisite little hand," so properly set off, is very likely to appertain to a geisha, "the sublimated waitress of Japan," as Mr. Clarke calls her in his book. She is a specialized Japanese institution, in no way to be confused with "light women," who are quite as numerous in Japan as elsewhere. "The geisha, or singing girl, to the Western mind, filled out the romantic idea of modern Japan," observes Mr. Clarke:

"The figure appeals to the artistic sense wholly. One dissociates her from the girl who has been kneeling before you on the opposite side of your lacquered tray with its pretty bowls of strange and dainty food, waiting on your slightest movement as you never have been waited on, with laughing eyes, smiling mouth and arching of her neck, as well as with quick, efficient fingers. She is, as you are probably aware, an old institution, originated seven centuries ago by the terrible Fujiwara Michinori in his gentler moments as the Shirabyoshi or white treaders of measures (in Lochinvar phrase) to grace banquets and festivals. Later combining attendance on guests with the stately saltation of the East.

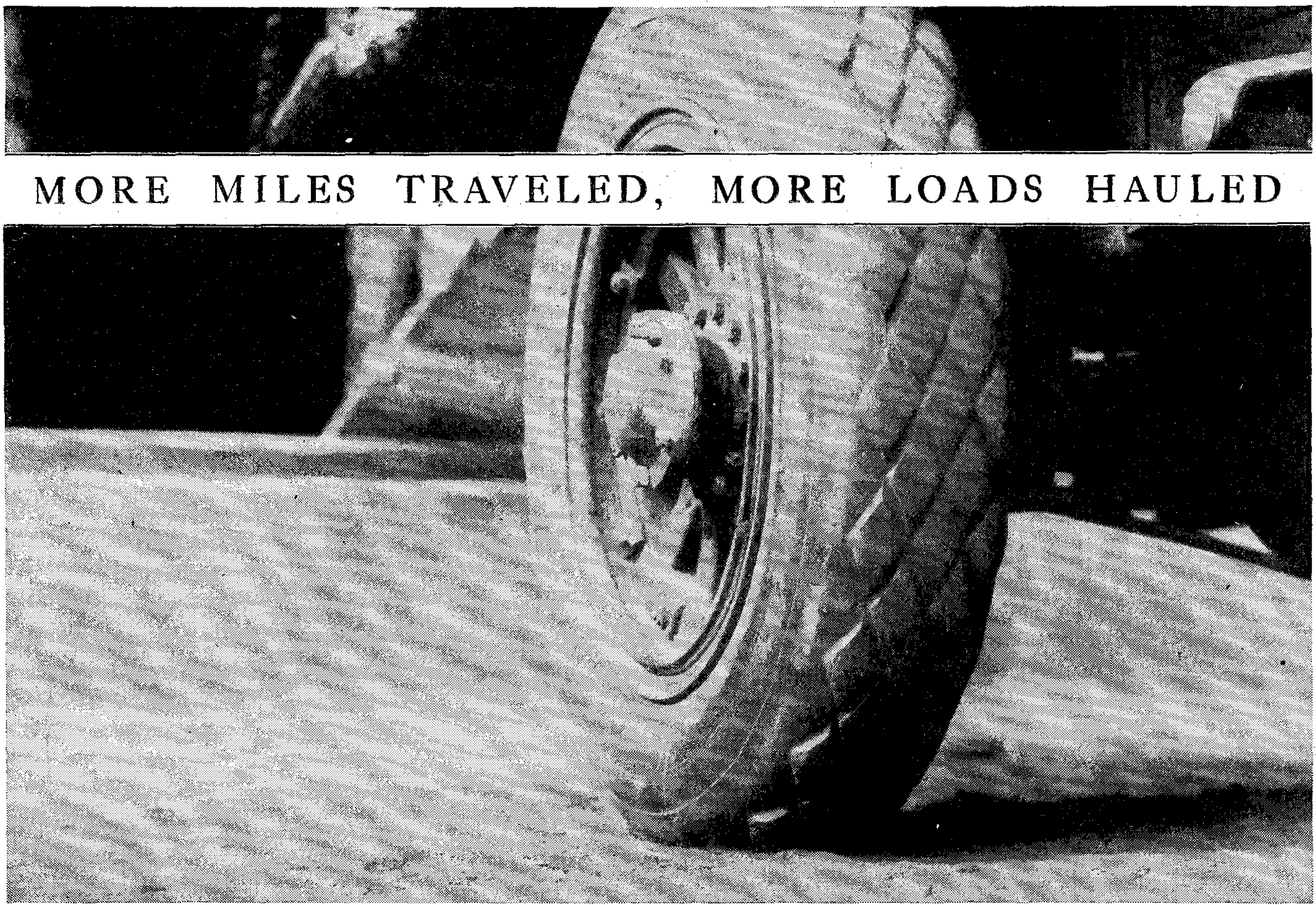
"I recall nothing of the pageantry of Japan with a more immediate appeal to joyous admiration than the formal entry of a score of geishas in ranks of four to wait upon a score of guests in that delectable restaurant, the Tokiowa—the Delmonico's of the Japanese capital. Toward the upper end of the large oblong room we were seated on the mats and resting on soft cushions of satin brocade in the customary three-sided line—that is, with the fourth side of the square open to the lower end of the room. Conversation was running airily along among the guests, when suddenly there was silence, and then murmurs of admiration as the splendid company of geishas wheeling in lines of four from the side entrances at the further end moved slowly forward down the center with a marvelous rhythmic stride, each bearing a tray of scarlet lacquer. Such a company of bright, smiling, youthful faces, of pure Oriental oval, surmounted by coronets of glossy black hair, puffed, interwoven and adorned with many pins, their flowing kimonos of brilliant brocade, their still brighter obis and their white-shod feet! Bloom of beauty and youth in gorgeous array were ushering in the feast. Lucullus nor any luxurious Roman of his time could have produced any finer prelude to a high repast.

"With almost military precision our geishas, as they advanced, wheeled so that in an instant their line was facing ours, smiling down on us. In another instant all were on their knees facing each a guest, and depositing before him their precious trays laden with good things. My geisha was a little beauty of scant eighteen, and touching her forehead to the floor she sat up and, leaning backward on her heels, helped me from the tray. Closer seen she is observed to be powdered and rouged, her lips painted scarlet, and otherwise facially a work of art, with fine touches and shadings beyond mere man to describe, from the convolutions of her lustrous hair to her slender, manicured finger-tips.

"Beyond this grace and efficiency of service, the geisha at the feast does not progress much farther with the foreigner, unless he can speak Japanese. The girls seldom learn any outland tongue. I remember one at Osaka sent for by my host because it was said she spoke English. Alas! a score or two of words, some a little rowdy, was her whole bilingual store, reflecting, like the sailor's parrot, more upon his teacher than on the vicar's sister, who owned the bird. 'You lak Japan damfine, eh?' was her somewhat disconcerting ingratiating salutation. For the rest it was 'gol' watch,' 'good morneen,' 'old top,' 'git tout,' 'solong, gooby!' without any relevance that I could discover. The bewitching, knowing smile that went with each of these was, however, worth something to witness."

Beneath the luxury and leisure typified by Tea Ceremonies, Flower Ceremonies and the geisha girl, there is that humble support of the Nation, of which not many traveler-commentators take much notice except on his picturesque side—the Japanese farmer. The late Walter Weyl, one of the editors and founders of the *New Republic*, found the Japanese farms and farmers vastly interesting. He spent more time among them than many writers of Japanese impressions spend in cities and tea-houses. We read in his posthumous volume, "Tired Radicals and other Papers" (Huebsch):

"The visual impression one gets of the Japanese countryside, even without leaving the railway compartment, is that the fields are already overcrowded. As you travel through the beautiful island of Hondo, encircling with a wide sweep the majestic Fuji mountain, you are never out of sight of the barelegged Japanese farmer, up to his knees in the flooded paddies or working with spade or ladle on the land, with a courage born of centuries of hard wrestling with Nature. The country seems one long, straggling inchoate village; everywhere are men and nowhere—or seemingly nowhere—horses, cattle, sheep and swine. The clustering men, the ubiquitous women and children, seem to have crowded the domestic animals from off the land. And in many



MORE MILES TRAVELED, MORE LOADS HAULED

Actual photograph of Goodyear Cord Truck Tire in the service of the Rumford Chemical Works, Rumford, Rhode Island

Copyright 1922, by The Goodyear Tire & Rubber Co.

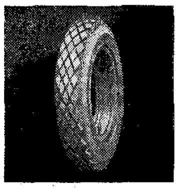
***"Since equipping with Goodyear Cord Truck Tires, we have increased our hauling radius. We cover territory more rapidly and haul more loads daily. Our trucks haul our products—acid phosphates for medicinal uses, and culinary phosphates, principally Rumford Baking Powder—from our plant to the wharves and freight houses of Providence. Emergency loads are hauled to New York or Boston. The shortest life of a Goodyear tire in our three years' experience has been 8,000 miles, and some have gone as high as 12,000 miles. They have real wearing quality."*—Wm. L. Sweet, Treasurer, Rumford Chemical Works, Rumford, Rhode Island**

THE advantage of selecting from a complete line of truck tires the particular tire best suited to your actual hauling conditions is forcefully illustrated in such experience as the Rumford Chemical Company reports with Goodyear Cord Truck Tires.

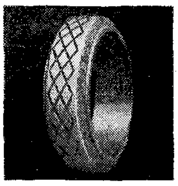
Active, swift-moving Goodyear Cords master the problem of trucking in narrow streets and on congested piers, make extra trips, cover more territory, and deliver more goods.

The tractive power and strength of their special design and construction enable them to stand up to varying road conditions—cobblestones, chuckholes and worn pavements in summer, snow and slush in winter.

The long life of the Goodyear Cords and the cushioning protection they afford to the truck and its load, to the valuable mechanism and the perishable cargo, are the basic factors of their real economy in hauling.



Goodyear Cord Truck Tire (Pneumatic)



Goodyear All-Weather Tread Solid

Goodyear Hollow-Center Cushion Tire

Product of exclusive patented design and carefully developed construction, Goodyear Cord Truck Tires are stronger than ordinary pneumatic tires. They are thick and heavy through the bead, where ordinary pneumatics fail. Their All-Weather Tread gives them all-season, all-road usefulness.

Where traction, cushioning and wide range of operation are desired, and where body clearances and loads permit, use Goodyear Cord Truck Tires as all 'round equipment on trucks up to three-ton capacity, and on the front wheels of heavy-duty trucks.

There are special Goodyear Truck Tires for every hauling need—Goodyear Cords, Goodyear All-Weather Tread Solids, Goodyear Cushion Tires. Call upon your Goodyear dealer for the benefit of his unbiased judgment in specifying the particular type of Goodyear Truck Tire that will serve you longest and best.

GOODYEAR

parts of the country this is literally true. A horse or a cow takes up too much room for its support. It is hard for men to perform the labor of horses, but where farms are very small and very dear, and fodder is expensive, there is no other way. It is for this reason that the tiny farms in the more densely populated parts of Japan swarm with men and are bare of domestic animals.

"When we grasp the smallness of Japan and the size of its population, we readily understand why the land is so crowded. Japan proper is a narrow and diminutive country. Its area of roughly 150,000 square miles is somewhat smaller than that of California, while *its population is twenty times as great.* Moreover, like Italy, Japan is chiefly a country of mountains and its arable land under cultivation amounts to only some 25,000 square miles, a farm area less than half that of the single State of Iowa. It follows that Japan is the classic land of intensive agriculture. Its dwarf farms are not really farms at all in our sense of the word, but gardens. There are no pastures, no barnyards, but merely little squares of land, now covered with water, now filled with mud drying in the sun, and now vividly green with the beautiful rice plants. These little patches of terraced and irrigated land have nothing in common with our one-hundred-and-sixty-acre farms. In Japan the average agricultural family (and there are five and a half millions of them) occupies only two and three-quarters acres each. Only one family in ten has as much as five acres (two cho) and over one-third of all rural families have farms of less than one and one-quarter acres. It is *morcellement* carried to a tragic absurdity.

"The living to be made out of these petty farms by the overflowing, fecund Japanese is of the meagerest. His is the most meticulous farming in the world. Every inch of ground is carefully cultivated, every possible saving sedulously made. Human waste is collected with faithful care and is piously returned to the land. Nothing could be more painstaking than this strenuous, small-scale agriculture. A solicitous government aids these farmers by means of experiment stations which give advice and instruction, and above all the farmers help themselves. By dint of hard labor and hard scrimping, they manage to secure some sort of a living from their three acres.

Photo by H. Suito, in Asia.

HUNTING DOWN INSECTS BY HAND.

Japanese school children set to improve their time by removing the grasshoppers and slugs from one corner of a small Japanese farm. The land is so scarce, and has to be cultivated so carefully to support Japan's teeming population, that even a few extra grasshoppers make a difference.

"But for the rural trades, and especially the silk industry, many of these little farmers and tenants could not live at all. It is the American demand for raw silk that saves the smaller Japanese farmers from being crusht. About three-fifths of all the silk used in the United States comes from Japan, and it is in the little farmhouses of the archipelago that the deft peasant women, in competition with their sisters in Italy and China, prepare this silk. In all, over 1,700,000 Japanese rural families devote themselves to this and other occupations, and thus eke out the scanty returns from agriculture. Of the farming families almost a third have some occupation subsidiary to farming."

On the farm, as well as among the working classes in the cities, Japanese life is made more interesting, amusing, or regrettable, as the case may be, by an almost endless number of superstitions. A central theme, around which Japanese fortune-tellers build their stories, as do our own astrologers, is the zodiac. The Japanese zodiac, taken over from the Chinese, consists of twelve animals. It was adopted centuries ago, and they still take account of it, we are told, tho they now generally use our Gregorian calendar for computing time. "But even so," writes Mr. Street:

"Their era is not the Christian Era, but dates from the beginning of the reign of Jimmu Tenno the Divine, whom the Japanese count as the first of their Imperial line, and who is said to have ascended the throne 600 B.C. Thus our current year, 1921, is the year 2581 in Japan. Time is also measured arbitrarily by the reigns of emperors, the present year being Taisho 10, or the tenth year of the reign of the present Emperor.

"The Chinese zodiac, however, figures largely in Japanese superstition. As there are twelve animals, the years are counted off in cycles of twelve; and the same animals are also associated with days and hours, in cycles of twelve. The attributes of the astrological animal governing the year of one's birth are supposed to attach to one.

"'My mother is a cow,' a Japanese lady explained to me. 'My husband is a snake, and I am a rabbit.'"

"The lore of these animals is complicated. I have only a smattering of it, but what I know will suffice to show the general tendency of such superstition.

"It is considered a good fortune to be born in the year of the horse, because the horse is strong and energetic. 1920 was the year of the monkey. It is unlucky to marry in monkey year because the word *saru,* which means 'monkey,' also means 'to go back,' the suggestion being that the bride will go back to her former home, or, in other words, be divorced. A woman born in the year of the rabbit will be prolific. (The lady who said, 'I'm a rabbit,' tho very young, was the mother of four.)

"Similarly the animals, in their cycle, bring good luck or ill luck in connection with events occurring on certain days. It is unlucky to take one's bed with a sickness on the day of the cow, because the cow is slow to get up. It is lucky to begin a journey on the day of the tiger, because the tiger, tho he travels a thousand miles, always returns to the point from which he started; but for the same reason it is unlucky for a girl to marry on this day, because she, like the tiger, may return to the place from which she started—her father's house. And the day of the tiger is a bad one for funerals, because the tiger drags its prey with it, suggesting that another funeral will soon follow. The significance attaching to each animal according to the Japanese idea is now always apparent, without explanation, to the stranger. For instance, tho I know it is considered lucky for a bride to cut her kimonos on the day of the rooster, I do not know why. Nor do I know why it is considered particularly lucky to have, in one family, three persons born under the same sign.

"Superstition of all kinds plays a large part in the daily life of the Japanese masses, and persons of intelligence often patronize fortune-tellers, among whom are the Buddhist priests in certain temples.

"Another superstition is exampled in the *ema,* votive offerings in the form of little paintings on wood, which are put up at Shinto shrines by those in need of help of one kind or another. For almost any sort of affliction an *ema* of suitable design may be found, tho the meaning of the grotesque design is seldom apparent to the foreigner.

"While in Japan I collected a number of these curious little objects and investigated their significance. Among them was one which my friend Yuki recognized as an appeal for relief from eye trouble.

"'That very good *ema,*' she told me. 'I use one like that once when I have sore eyes.'

"'Did it cure you, Yuki?'

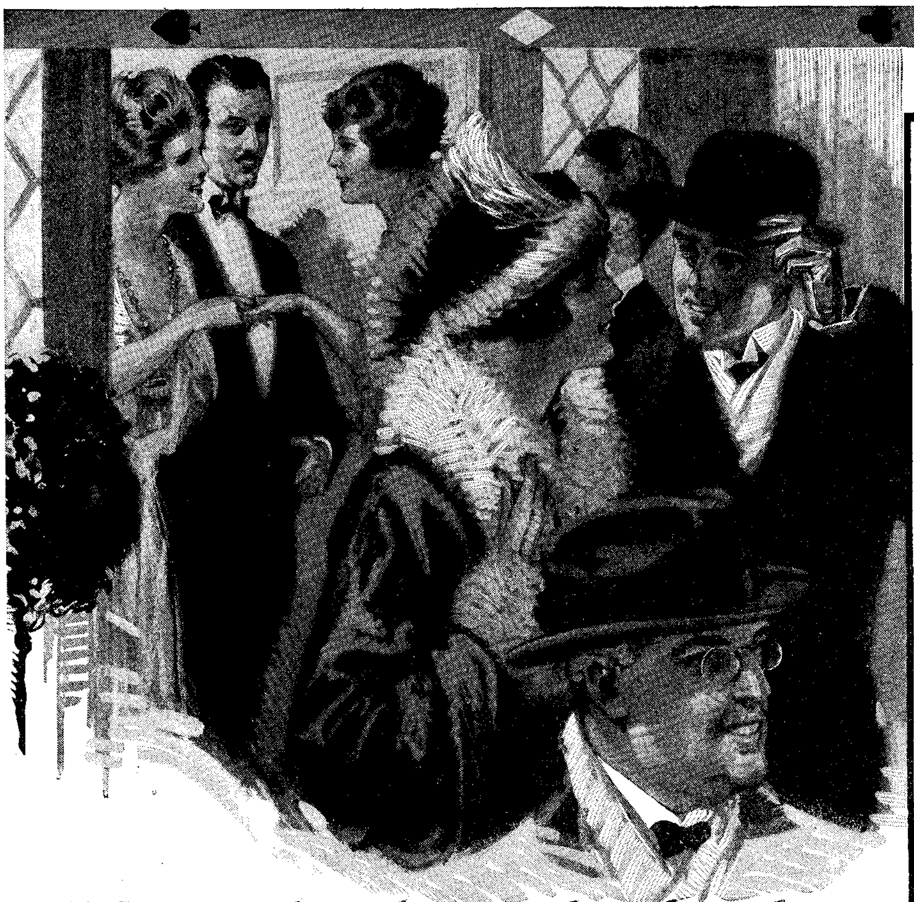
"'Yes, sir, I sure.'

"'You didn't do anything else for your eyes?'

"'No, it just like I say. I put up *ema* for god and not drink tea. Then I wait two weeks.'

"'Did your eyes hurt you during the two weeks?'

"'Oh, yes. They hurt so much I have to wash them two, three times a day with boric acid, while I wait for *ema* to make cure. But when end of two weeks comes they not sore any more. That *ema* work very good.'"



What do they think when they leave your parties?

"MY, oh, my, I was never so bored in my life," or "Well, didn't we have a jolly time! Those folks certainly know how to entertain."

The answer is in the *kind* of entertainment you provide. Follow this suggestion—

Play cards for wholesome recreation

and you will find everybody helping to make the evening pleasant for everybody else. The most backward people will enter into the spirit of a card game as if they had known each other for years. The informal folks will be calling each other by their first names before the evening is over. And they'll all be glad to come to your house again whenever you say the word.

Send for these books:

"The Official Rules of Card Games" giving complete rules for 300 games and points for better playing, and "How to Entertain with Cards", a 48-page book of interesting suggestions. Check these and other books wanted on coupon, write name and address in margin below and mail with required postage stamps to

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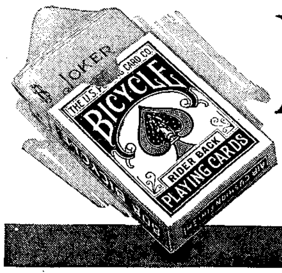

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PLAYING CARDS

(*Also Congress Playing Cards. Art Backs. Gold Edges.*)

"500" at a Glance

THE PACK—Two-hand, 24-card pack, A (high) to 9 (low); three-hand, 32 cards, A to 7; four-hand, 42-card pack, A to 4, (omitting two 4's); five-hand, regular 52-card pack; six-hand, 61-card pack, with 11 and 12 spots; plus Joker if desired.

PLAYERS—Two to six; a good three-hand game. Four, six, and five-hand are partnership games—four hand, 2 against 2; six-hand, three pairs of partners. In five-hand, successful bidder calls any one player as his partner for that hand; or he may designate one partner on bid of six or seven, and two partners on higher bid; or he may call holder of a certain card for his partner, but holder of card makes no announcement until card called for falls in play.

RANK OF CARDS—Trump suit: Joker (when used) high; J (right bower); J of same color (left bower); A, K, Q, 10, 9, etc. Other suits: A, K, Q, J, 10, 9, etc.

CUTTING—Cut for deal. Low deals—ace low.

DEALING—Deal 3 cards to each player, then for a "widow" lay 2 cards face down on the table, (3 if Joker is used), then deal 4 cards to each player, then 3.

OBJECT OF GAME—To take tricks. Bidder, (or partners), must take full number of tricks bid. Adversaries score each trick they take.

MAKING TRUMP—Beginning at dealer's left, each has one chance to bid or "pass." Bids are made to take a certain number of tricks, with a named suit as trumps; or to take them without a trump. Form of bid is: "six clubs"; "eight diamonds," etc. Six tricks is lowest bid. When all pass, cards are bunched and deal passes to left. In some localities, if no one bids, the hands are played "no-trump", without using "widow"; each trick taken scores 10; and there is no "set back."

AVONDALE SCHEDULE

Tricks	6	7	8	9	10
Spades	40	140	240	340	440
Clubs	60	160	260	360	460
Diamonds	80	180	280	380	480
Hearts	100	200	300	400	500
No Trump	120	220	320	420	520

IRREGULAR BIDDING—In partnership games, if any player bids out of turn, his bid is void, and his partner loses right to bid that deal.

DISCARDING—Highest bidder takes "widow", then discards to ten cards, and leads any card.

PLAY—Beginning at bidder's left each player must follow suit, if possible; otherwise trump or discard. Winner of trick leads for next. On "no-trump" bid, the hand is played without trumps, with Joker as highest card of all; but Joker may not be played to another's lead if holder can follow suit. Player who leads Joker names the suit that shall be played to it.

IRREGULARITIES IN PLAY—Failure to follow suit, when able to do so, is a *revoke*. When revoke is proved, hands are abandoned. If adversary of bidder revokes, bidder scores full amount of his bid; side in error scores nothing. If bidder revokes, he is set back full amount of his bid, and adversaries score any tricks they already have taken.

SCORING—If bidder takes number of tricks bid, he scores amount bid as per Avondale Schedule, but no more, except when he takes all ten tricks. For this he scores 250, if his bid was for less. Adversaries score 10 for each trick they take.

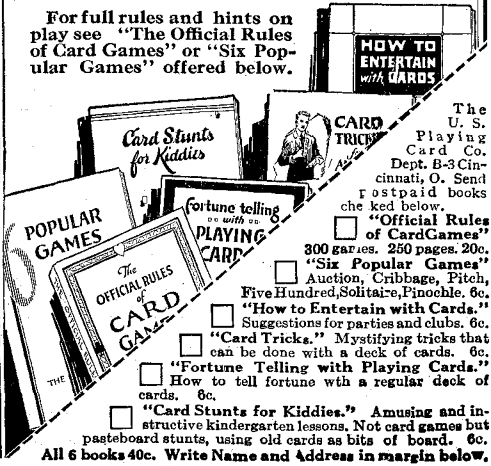
SET BACK—If bidder fails to "make" his bid, the number of points bid are deducted from his previous score. If set back before he has scored anything or for more points than he has scored, he is "in the hole" (indicated by drawing a ring around the minus amount). Partners are "set back" together.

GAME—Game is 500. If more than one player scores game on same hand, and one of them is bidder, bidder wins. If neither is bidder, player first winning enough tricks to make his score 500 wins.

FIVE HUNDRED FOR TWO

When 2 play Five Hundred, 33 cards may be used and a third hand dealt, besides usual "widow". This "dead" hand must not be touched. Its purpose is to make bidder speculate as to location of cards, and make high bids possible.

For full rules and hints on play see "The Official Rules of Card Games" or "Six Popular Games" offered below.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☐ **"Card Stunts for Kiddies."** Amusing and instructive kindergarten lessons. Not card games but pasteboard stunts, using old cards as bits of board. 6c.

All 6 books 40c. Write Name and Address in margin below.

THE "GENTLEST OF THE GENTLER SEX" IN JAPAN

THE PERFECT FLOWER of Japanese civilization, the nation's "crowning glory," is the Japanese lady of culture, whose "calm, sedate gracefulness" a discerning Japanese writer attributes to a study of the Tea Ceremony. But "the bearing of a Japanese lady is a thing too exquisite to have been produced by the practise of any artificial social ritual," objects Julian Street, a recent American observer whose impressions of Japan have reached wide magazine and book circulation. "Such a bearing," he writes, "is not to be classed as a mere accomplishment, even if it may have been so a thousand years ago. Rather it is the reflection of an incomparably lovely spirit, the flower of countless generations of such spirits, reaching back through ages of tradition, centuries of self-abnegation. It is the crowning product in proof, not of any Tea Ceremony, but of the disciplined civilization of Old Japan." This "self-abnegation," shown from a slightly different angle, is illustrated by an incident which occurred to "a Japanese lady who, after having lived five years in the States, returned with her husband to Japan on a visit." Amos S. Hershey tells the story in "Modern Japan" (Bobbs, Merrill):

From "Mysterious Japan" (Doubleday, Page).

ONE REASON THE JAPANESE WOMAN IS GENTLE.

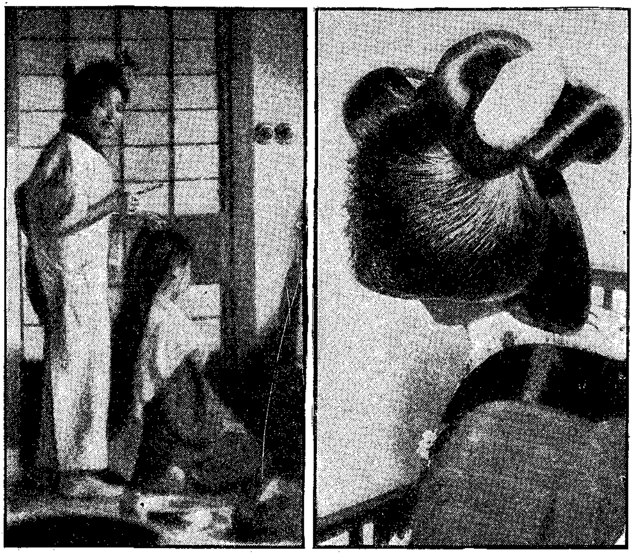
The film is not large enough to hold the family of this youngish fisherman at Nabuto. Such families are even commoner in Japan to-day than they were in this country fifty years ago, and the Japanese wife and mother is subservient not only to the orders of her husband, but of her "in-laws," and even of her grown-up sons. Traces of "Feminism," however, have lately appeared.

> A friend wished to give them an entertainment, but the husband stipulated that his wife should attend only on condition that the wives of the other guests would also attend. On the evening of the gathering there were a number of geisha invited in as entertainers. Along one side of the room sat the wives, who on arriving exchanged formal courtesies with one another, after which they settled in silence to listen to the entertainment and to watch their husbands amusing themselves with the geisha in the intervals of the program.
>
> After the Americanized couple returned home, the husband reproached his wife: "Why did you sit like a mummy during the entire evening and say nothing?"
>
> "Did you wish me to appear immodest and unwomanly in the eyes of all your old friends?" was her response. "I have not forgotten that a Japanese woman must be silent in public if she wishes to be respected."

Japanese women are taught from girlhood to be "modest, retiring and obedient as daughter and wife, and as a rule they are," testifies Mr. Clarke in his "Japan at First Hand" (Dodd, Mead). As for the "romantic" side of the Japanese woman's life:

> She is almost certain to avoid spinsterhood, so well oiled is the marriage machinery in Japan. Courtship is unknown as we know it. The bringing about of marriage is regularly the work of a private go-between, who brings the young people together after the parents on both sides, with additional precautionary inquisitorial go-betweens, have agreed to a proposed match. Thus girls often select their husbands unknown to the bridegroom himself, for the selection is usually supposed to be and usually is the result of the go-between's astute observation, the initiative coming from one or other of the parents, who says in effect, "Pray you, good friend, find a spouse for my daughter—or son," as the case may be. In this way even when a young man or young woman has a small purse or a bodily defect some one equally short in cash or corporal perfection is found, and the thing is done. The young people meet at a theater or feast; they chat gingerly with each other and final consent is given. No courtship and absolutely no kissing!
>
> It is said that the young wife enters her husband's family with her eyes open, just as the young husband may enter his wife's family, in which case he is at the same time "adopted" and takes her name. Lafcadio Hearn—a piteously plain-looking man—entered his wife's family in this way. It is "let the buyer beware" in either case.
>
> The young wife's life is usually no path of cherry blossoms, for the family—the great Japanese unit—rules in the house, and not herself or her husband while the father lives. Few young couples set up for themselves, as with us; they live in the family. The bridegroom's father and mother are the heads, and no step may be taken without their consent. If there is a disagreement the family council is called and their decision must be obeyed. The mother-in-law is exacting and oppressive; the husband's sisters are critical. The wife is given more than her share of family work or responsibility, and often leads a very dispiriting life at first. Her great hope is maternity. Therein her work is not lessened, but her joy begins. She has made mother-in-law a grandmother, and that helps in Japan, where keeping up the line of descent is a great pride and a great duty. So her lot improves spiritually. The little human flowers blossoming around the house make for everybody's happiness.

Even in Japan, however, there is at least an incipient woman movement. Professor Jiro Shimoda, of the "Tokyo Higher



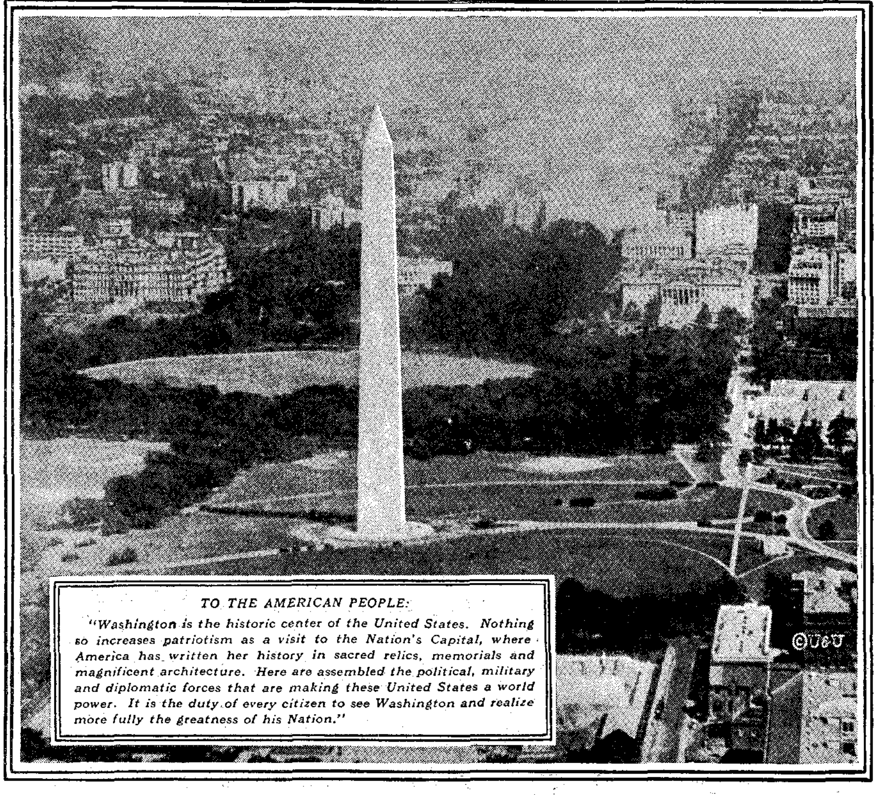
From "Mysterious Japan" (Doubleday, Page).

A TRIUMPH OF SKILL AND POMADE.

Hairdressing in Japan requires from two hours to half a day, but the result is so solid, and the Japanese lady sleeps so carefully with her head on a wooden block, that one coiffure will last for several days.

Women's Normal School," admits that Japanese women are not remaining "apathetic inspectors of what their sisters of America and England are doing for upholding and asserting the cause of women." Emma Sarepta Yule, a resident of Japan for a number of years, recalls in *Scribner's Magazine* the "first strictly feminine militant movement in the history of Japan," when some embattled fisherwomen in 1919 started a near-riot in protest against the high cost of rice. The views of a number of eminent Japanese as to the old and "new" women in Japan are contrasted with the views of three more or less "radical" Japanese women, in the *Taikwan*, a Tokyo monthly edited under the supervision of Marquis Okuma. As summed up in "The Japan Year Book," their ideas run:

> Marquis Okuma—While recognizing equality for woman in personal status, the Marquis says that the physical difference between men and women point to the corresponding difference in their heaven-ordained function. Political activity is strictly man's province, not woman's.
>
> Dr. Nitobe—This eminent scholar and educationist takes exception to that time-honored article of faith in the education of Japanese women, namely, the *ryosai kembo shugi* (good-wife-and-wise-mother principle). What he can not well understand is why every woman should be cast in one uniform mold for good wifehood and wise motherhood, for such attributes can not be absolute, but must vary according to time and place.
>
> Women's Views—We have only three or four women who have boldly appeared before the footlight to give expression to their opinion as to the true position of women in Japan. These are Mrs. Akiko Yosano, a scholar and poetess, Miss "Raicho" Hiratsuka, a "new woman," and Mrs. Kikue Yamakawa, an English scholar whose husband, a socialist, has been imprisoned recently on the charge of having incited the rice riot in the summer of 1918.
>
> Mrs. Yosano, who wields a facile pen, takes her stand on the principle that women should be self-supporting and choose some suitable profession, an interesting observation for a mother of numerous children, as Mrs. Yosano is.
>
> Miss Hiratsuka, on the other hand, holds a view that Japanese women should be faithful to the function assigned them by nature and be contented to remain as mothers, also an interesting observation for a woman who is believed to be rather free about the question of marriage.
>
> Mrs. Yamakawa in the address recently delivered before a meeting of the Sociological Society of Japan organized by university professors and other men of authority, made this remark; "Let domestic drudgery, at least a greater part of it, be removed from the shoulders of mothers by some arrangement of common management, and let the care of children be left in charge of those specially qualified for the task, to the end that the mothers be enabled to attend to some social service they choose. Of course the mothers may be left, if they prefer, to look to the nursing of their own children, but in that case it stands to reason that some allowance be made to them in suitable proportion to the saving effected in the expense for maintaining the public creches." Mrs. Yamakawa therefore occupies a position midway between the two.



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SCIENCE IN JAPAN

MODERN OR "WESTERN" SCIENCE dates in Japan from the commercial contact with the western world effected by Commodore Perry's expedition. As with all her adopted western ways, she has taken kindly to it and to all its applications to industry. In the annual reports on scientific progress issued by European learned societies, it is now quite usual to find Japanese names. Taking at random those on the progress of chemistry, compiled by the Chemical Society in London (1921), we find mention of the work of Inamura on aluminum nitrate; of Kodama on chemical sweeteners in use in Japan, especially the salts of leucic acid; of Kuhara and Kashima on transformations of hydrogenated naphthaline, and of Amatsu and Tsudji on the effect of chemical substances on bacteria.

The great advances of the Japanese in medicine were first brought to our attention in the Russo-Japanese War, where their sanitary and hospital service opened the eyes of the world. They have always been at the front, in medical research, and especially in bacteriology, where Dr. Shibazaburo Kitasato perhaps stands at the head. Says *The Japan Advertiser*, as quoted in the *Bulletin* of the Japan Society (New York):

> "Professor Kitasato may be called the father of bacteriological research in Japan, and is undoubtedly one of the greatest authorities in the world, living or dead, on infectious diseases and on the prevention of their spread. It would be a prodigious sin to have such a man without an opportunity of utilizing his unique knowledge and his zealous proclivity for scientific research."

For this reason, the Kitasato Institute has been established at the medical college of Keio University.

Some of the most recent work by Japanese in pure science has been done by students in the United States, as noted in an article by Katsuji Kato in *The Japan Review* (Chicago). Among other achievements Mr. Kato notes the brilliant work of Dr. Noguchi, of the Rockefeller Institute, leading to the discovery of the causative germ of yellow-fever; that of Nakahara on effects due to exposure to X-rays; Kosakai on osmotic pressure; discoveries in biological chemistry by a dozen or more students; a new hydraulic stomach-examiner, by Dr. Togami; and scores of others. Dr. Kato concludes:

> "It is clear that the Japanese in the United States are making a definite contribution to the advancement of scientific knowledge, which is of vital importance to human welfare."

The progress of science and industry in Japan has been greatly fostered by the Japanese system of education, which, unlike that in England and America, is strictly nationalized. Says Dr. William M. McGovern in his "Modern Japan":

> "On one point Japan has been extremely wise—practical, technical, and specialized education have been especially favored. The Government has a horror of seeing its young men full of general and scrappy information—of education such as we find it in India, which prepares a man for being only a doctor, a lawyer, or a journalist, with the result that most become political agitators. Even in the Japanese primary schools we find evidences of specialization. In towns the elements of commerce and bookkeeping are given; in manufacturing districts ideas of industry, and the ends and means of engineering; in agricultural districts they are taught how to cultivate the soil most efficiently; while on the sea-coast scientific methods of catching fish are shown. Girls are everywhere instructed in sewing and cooking, and in many cases the elements of sericulture.
>
> "When we come to secondary education, we find institutions especially devoted to the teaching of agriculture, commerce, engineering, fishery, navigation. We find, in addition, apprenticeship schools for all trades, technical continuation schools, and normal schools, where primary school teachers are trained."

In an article entitled "The Greatest University of the East," contributed by Katsuji Kato to *The Japanese Student* (Chicago), we are told that in the Imperial University of Tokyo, the College of Science alone comprises nine departments and controls six subsidiary institutions—a museum, an observatory, two botanical gardens, a seismological laboratory and a marine biological station. The faculty has forty-six professors.

The enthusiasm for the study of practical sciences, especially technical sciences, such as chemistry and mechanics, as against purely intellectual science and literature, is a conspicuous feature of present-day Japan, says the editor of the *Kokumin*, a vernacular paper, quoted in the *Bulletin* of the Japan Society.

> "This is further evidenced in the kinds of books published and sold during the past year, for most of them were on such subjects as chemistry, mechanics, economics and finance."

"A Scientific Bureaucracy," is what Japan is termed by Prof. Walter B. Pitkin, of Columbia University, in his book "Must We Fight Japan?" This term is justified, he says, by what he calls "the astonishing concentration of scientists and all other technical experts in the service of the state." He adds:

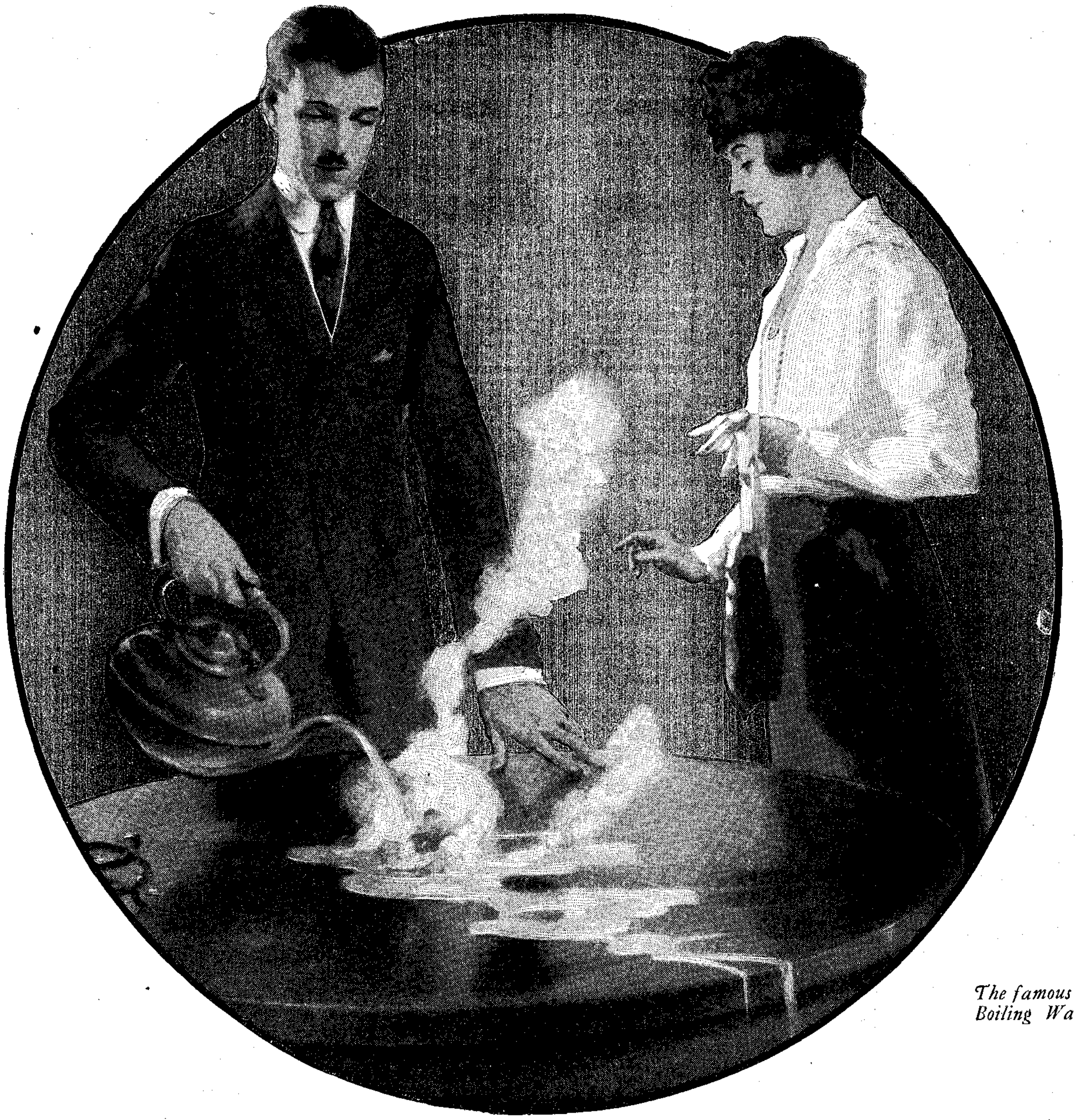
> "Pre-war Germany was the first case of this in all history, and Germany became, in structure and in methods, a titanic corporation. In 1914 Germany was, past all dispute, the most powerful social organization ever fashioned in the flesh, and but for the Germans' inability to understand the workings of other men's minds, they would now be well on their way to rule the world.
>
> "Now, in every detail, Japan to-day duplicates the best of that old German structure or else surpasses it. We have shown that the entire educational system there is governmental. So all the experts in the university laboratories are government employees. All the railways, telephones, telegraphs, the tobacco business, the salt monopoly, the camphor industry of Formosa, and a large majority of the manufacturing and banking concerns are likewise either owned outright or decisively controlled by the Government. Hence all the thousands of experts in these many lines are civil servants. All this colossal organization centers around the Mikado, from whom all authority derives. It is still managed by the old clans and their Elder Statesmen, whose model of administration is not the British Parliament nor the American Congress, but the United States Steel Corporation and the Standard Oil Company. All observers, be they friendly or hostile to Japan, take off their hats to the sheer efficiency of this super-Prussian machine. Its accomplishments in Korea alone are, from the point of view of big business, magnificent."

The chemical industries in Japan date from about 1914, when they were "embryonic," we are told by Michel Annebault, writing in *Chemie et Industrie* (Paris). Now the Japanese not only manufacture most of the chemicals needed for local consumption, but export largely. The following is condensed from Mr. Annebault's list:

> "*Matches.* Japan is now one of the world's principal producers owing to the rapid growth of the phosphorus and potassium chlorate industries.
>
> "*Iodin.* Japan exports much of this, extracting it from seaweed at several points on the coast.
>
> "*Sulfuric Acid.* Production, 3000 tons a day.
>
> "*Gas and Coal Tar.* Only one gas-plant in 1870; now about 120, producing large quantities also of such by-products as benzol, cresol, naphthalene, carbolic acid, and tar derivatives. There are nearly 100 artificial dye factories.
>
> "*Oils and Fats.* About $15,000,000 produced, with such allied products as soap, candles and glycerin.
>
> "*Rubber.* Industry developed since 1887, with at present more than 100 plants. Two million dollars' worth of rubber tires exported annually.
>
> "*Paper.* An old industry. Since the introduction of machinery production of special Japanese varieties has risen to ten million dollars' worth. Ordinary print paper is exported to China and India at the rate of about $9,000,000 a year.
>
> "*Electrochemistry.* This industry has been greatly developed, with resulting large-scale production of carbides, artificial graphite, metallic sodium, caustic soda, nitric acid, chlorin and many other chemicals."

Besides these, Mr. Annebault lists artificial fertilizers, paints, lacs and varnishes, ceramics, enameled ware, glass, cement, plastic materials and sugar, and concludes:

> "It becomes evident that Japan has directed her mental and monetary resources to the manufacture of the products she imported in pre-war times mainly from Germany, and that she has succeeded to such an extent that she will become Germany's successful competitor in the foreign markets."



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WHY JAPAN TOOK KOREA

"EMPTY STOMACHS have no ears," and when Japan, fearing coming leanness for her population, annexed the Korean peninsula in 1910, it was, her apologists say, in order to get bread and elbow room in which to make it. Thereafter the Korean who was hardy enough to shout "Mansei" (a thousand years of independence) where the Japanese officials could hear him was promptly punished as a rebel, often with a savage cruelty that the Japanese themselves have deprecated. It was land hunger, economic pressure, fear of the expanding white nations, especially of Russia, that the Japanese offer as excuses for depriving the ancient Hermit Kingdom of its independence, and they argue that the material benefits they have imported into Korea justify the invasion. "The Japanese people," said a recent writer, "must either die a saintly death in righteous starvation, or expand into the neighbor's backyard—and Japan is not that much of a saint." And the editor of the Tokyo *Yorodzu*, defending his countrymen's right to emigrate to Korea, prior to the annexation, wrote ironically: "How shall we dispose of our surplus millions? Our small country can hardly find room within its narrow boundaries to accommodate its yearly increase of half a million people. We can not kill them wholesale, nor can we fill up the Sea of Japan and make dry land for them to settle on. We would like to go to Kansas, or anywhere but Hades, where we could escape starvation. But however hospitable America may be, she refuses to receive so many newcomers all at once." A similar cold attitude confronts Japan in Australia and wherever else the white man has hung his hat. Having nowhere else to go, Japan stept ashore in Asia, and her annexation of Korea has been recognized by the Powers as a *fait accompli*.

But Korean writers and sympathizers tell a different story, arguing that Japan was incited more by greed than by need in her invasion of the Asiatic mainland, and that she is animated by the ambition to become the dominant Power in the Far East. "Let it be first understood that the annexation by Japan in 1910 was an intolerable and unnecessary mistake," writes B. L. Putnam Weale, adviser in 1919 to the Chinese Government on foreign affairs, and a recognized authority on the Far East, in "The Truth about China and Japan" (Dodd, Mead). "The acknowledged protectorate which had existed in that peninsula as a result of the Manchurian War in 1904-05 was all that was necessary to safeguard Japan's strategic interest, and anything more than a protectorate inevitably constituted an international danger. For if England requires in Egypt no more than paramountcy to guarantee a vital waterway in her water-empire certainly Japan has satisfied strategy when she has secured that no hostile forces can seize this hilly promontory which reaches out to within 100 miles of her coast."

With Korea it has been a case of which master—Russia, China, or Japan?—and the Land of the Morning Calm has known little to justify the titular phrase since the three began hungering for her soil. For a long period she was under the suzerainty of China, which by the fortunes of war was exchanged for the "protecting" influence of Japan. In 1860 Russia obtained concessions from China which threatened Korea's sovereignty and alarmed the neighbor across the sea. At the end of the China-Japan War of 1894-95 the bond with China was definitely broken, and Korea's independence was recognized by victorious Japan. Russia's designs to spread into Korea were thwarted by the war of 1904-05, at the end of which Japan again recognized the sovereignty of Korea. But, under the Convention of November 17, 1905, said by the Koreans to have been wrung from the Emperor and his cabinet by force and fraud, the country was placed under the protectorate which five years later resulted in formal annexation. The peninsula was ripe for plucking by anybody, argue the Japanese, and Kotaro Michizuki, a member of the Japanese Parliamentary Commission, pointedly declared at the time of annexation: "President Roosevelt took the Canal Zone because it was essential for the same reason. Only Colombia was not menacing the very existence of the United States, while Korea certainly was menacing Japan through her intrigues with Russia."

But Japan made return to Korea, we are told, with many improvements, social, economic and material. "Less than ten per cent. of the area of the country, and less than half its arable land were under cultivation when the Japanese annexed the peninsula," writes Dr. Arthur Judson Brown in "The Mastery of the Far East" (Scribner's). The conquerors, he says, have established sanitary measures, installed water and sewerage systems, opened free hospitals and dispensaries in the principal cities, and extended railways, highways and telegraphs. Afforestation is another boon which the Japanese have brought into Korea. Millions of young trees were set out on bare hillsides, and April 3 was officially designated as Arbor Day, on which Koreans, especially school children, were urged to set out trees which the Government furnished. Some of the acts which have given offense to the Koreans were inevitable, says Dr. Brown, but he argues that "it is not possible for a conquering army in time of war to sweep through a country and not incur the fear and hatred of the native population; and Japan had to do this twice." Looking at the matter as fairly as possible now, continues Dr. Brown,

> "I believe that the balance inclines heavily in favor of the Japanese. I do not defend some of the things that they have done. I sympathize with the Koreans. They would be unworthy of respect if they did not prefer their national freedom. One can understand why the injustice of their own magistrates seemed less irksome than the stern justice of alien conquerors. Nevertheless I confess to sympathy also with the Japanese. They were forced to occupy Korea to prevent a Russian occupation, which would have menaced their own independence as a nation. They are now struggling with their burden against heavy odds, with limited financial resources, and against the dislike and opposition of Koreans, Russians, Chinese, and most of the foreigners in the Far East. While we should as frankly discuss their methods as we would those of our own country in similar circumstances, we should avoid the error of assuming that we can help the Koreans by unjust abuse of their rulers."

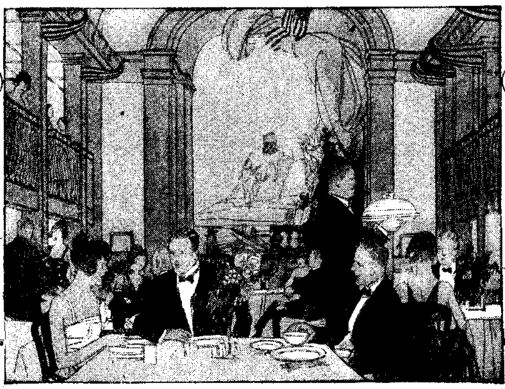
On the other hand, Japan's occupation of Korea constitutes a black story of despotism, outrage and torture, relates Henry Chung in "The Case of Korea" (Fleming H. Revell Company). Mr. Chung, who was a member of the Korean Commission to America and Europe, says that "ever since Japan went into Korea she has been practising upon the Koreans Turkish cruelty, with German efficiency and Japanese cunning. . . . At the very moment when the Japanese statesmen are making public statements that they love the Koreans as their brethren, villages are being wiped out, innocent men and women are being beaten to death behind prison bars. The promises of reform, almost before they have left the mouth of official Tokyo, are being washed away in blood." It is not for bread, but for power, says this Korean writer, that Japan has set her foot on the Asiatic mainland. "The ultimate objective of Pan-Nipponism is to consolidate all Asia under Japanese domination, after which will come the settlement of the mastery of the Pacific. In order to dominate the continent of Asia, it is necessary for Japan strongly to entrench herself in Korea so that she may use that territory as a base of military operations. In this respect, and in it alone, the holding of Korea is essential to Japan." Political and judicial oppression have been introduced, Mr. Chung further charges in his indictment, and the social evil is not only permitted, but encouraged. Habeas corpus is unknown, and every man is considered guilty until he proves his innocence. Despotic power is placed in the hands of the police, and, according to a comment taken by the writer from the Japan *Chronicle*, it was stated in Parliament that "it was usual for a gendarme, who visits a Korean house for the purpose of searching for a criminal, to violate any female inmate of the house and take away any article that suits his fancy." Among many instances of brutality charged to the police is the following, which Mr. Chung takes from an account written by Dr. Frank W. Schofield, a Canadian medical missionary to Korea:

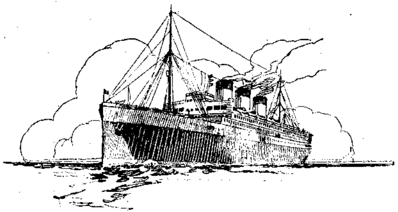
"I saw an old man two days ago whose three sons and three grandsons were taken out of his house, tied in a row and then bayoneted to death for shouting 'Long live Korea.' He begged the soldiers to kill him, but they refused. He is now going insane. Think of it! The youngest grandson was only fifteen years old. But these are the methods employed by militaristic Japan in maintaining law and order among an unarmed people. I saw a schoolgirl who has a sword cut on her back; she had been attacked by a high officer. I have seen a boy whose leg was burnt with hot irons to make him give information, and a man who was hung up by one finger to the ceiling for the same purpose. Two women were killed; one shot and the other sabered because the officer said they were stubborn and would not obey orders. Their orders were to go home while the Japanese troops murdered their husbands."

Mr. Chung charges that the Japanese are attempting to destroy all native ideals, and as to the material reforms introduced by Japan, he says:

"It is true that roads have been built, streets widened, sanitation improved, telegraphic and postal communications extended and afforestation encouraged. But the Korean people have paid for them, and Korean virgin forests have been devastated at a hundred-fold greater rate than afforestation has been accomplished. Furthermore, a close examination of the material improvements made in Korea reveals that only such improvements have been made as would profit the Japanese. What benefits the Koreans have received are incidental and accidental."

However, most of the atrocities are said to have been committed during the Korean uprising in 1919, due largely, we read in "The Japan Year-Book," to the native Christian students, followers of the quasi-religious sect known as Tendokyo (Heavenly Path), who were "soon joined by idlers and rowdies." Since then, according to the editor of *The Missionary Review of the World* (New York), material reforms have been introduced by the Japanese. The gendarmerie have been replaced by civil police, and Japanese officials known to be sympathetic with the Koreans have been put in administrative posts. "We deplore the atrocities perpetuated in the attempt to crush the Korean uprisings," write T. Iyenaga and Kenoske Sato in "Japan and the California Problem" (G. P. Putnam's Sons). "Whatever may have been the advisability of adopting drastic measures to nip the Korean revolt in the bud, a revolt which, if leniently dealt with, might have resulted in far greater sufferings of the people, it can never be proffered as a plea for the committing of inhuman deeds. Fortunately, a change of heart has come to the Mikado's Government, which, by up-rooting the militaristic régime, is now resolutely introducing liberal measures and reforms in Korea."





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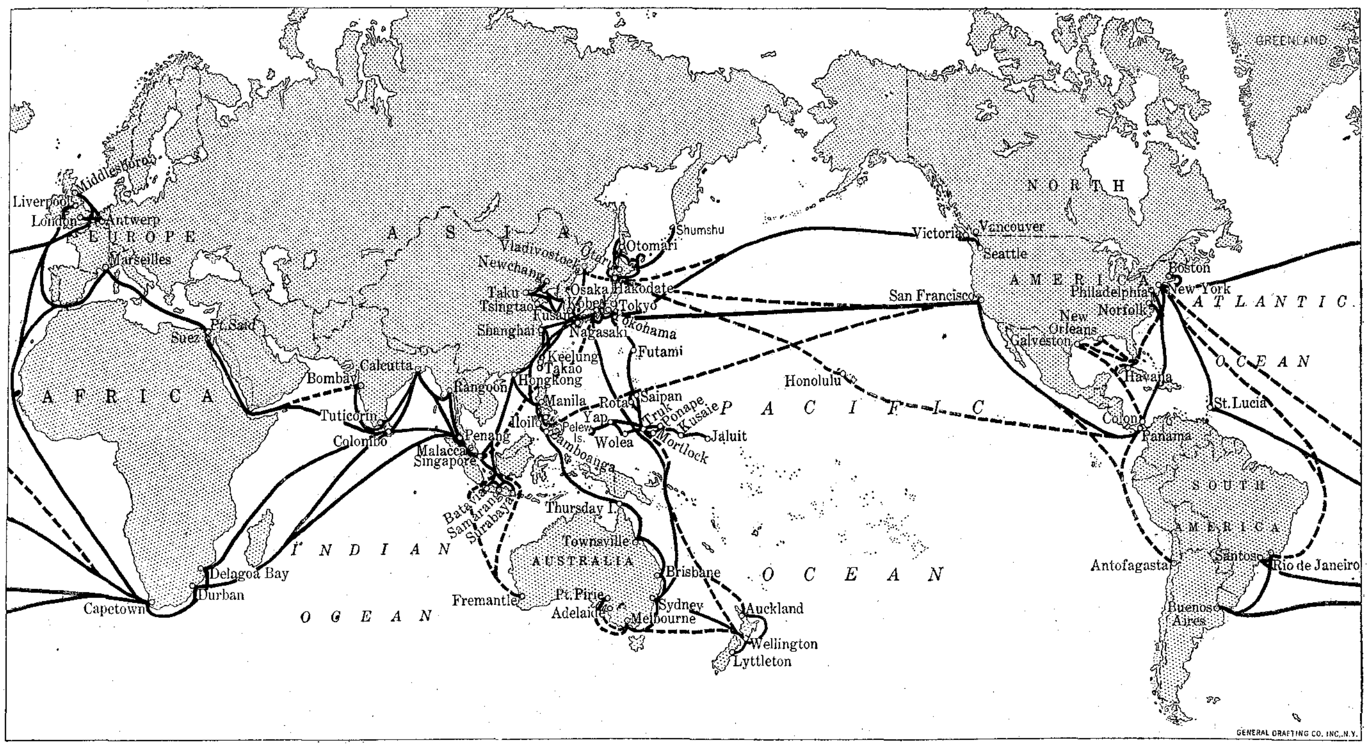
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The Nippon Yusen Kaisha's regular freight or passenger service is shown by the solid, and occasional service by the broken, lines.

THE *MARU* SHIPS ON THE TRADE LINES OF THE SEVEN SEAS

JAPAN'S MARVELOUS ADVANCE as a factor in the seaborne trade of the world has been noted on another page, with figures showing the growth and present size of her merchant fleet. Mention has also been made of the care, forethought and expense on the part of the Government, which has been so largely instrumental in bringing about that progress. Japan's first ship-bounty law was enacted in 1896. As a result of these twenty-five years of encouragement and enterprise, the subsidized Japanese steamship lines have become formidable competitors of the great British and American companies engaged in the Pacific trade. Japanese ships carry Japanese passengers and Japanese goods to nearly every important port in the world. Of 13,000 ships entering Japanese ports in 1919, 10,643 were Japanese, says "The Statesman's Year-Book." There are now, to cite a few facts from "The Japan Year-Book's" chapter on Japanese shipping, five great subsidized steamship companies carrying both freight and passengers: the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, whose routes are given in the above map; the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, the Toyo Kisen Kaisha, the Nissen Kisen Kaisha, and the Nan-yo Yusen Kaisha. Non-subsidized ships are said to be mostly tramp steamers, engaged chiefly in trade confined to the Far East. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha last year owned 37 ships of more than 1000 tons, a total tonnage of 457,494, as well as 45 smaller steamers. The scope of this company's activity is sufficiently indicated by the map. Its most important lines carrying both passenger and freight are those to London, Seattle, India, Australia, South America, and New York via Panama. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha's steamers, with a tonnage of 326,840, are engaged in service to the Asiatic mainland, in a freight and passenger line to Tacoma, and in recently started services to Europe, South America and the South Seas. The most important passenger and freight service of the Toyo Kisen Kaisha is the line between San Francisco and Shanghai via Honolulu, Yokohama and Kobe. The Nissen Kisen Kaisha devotes its attention to Chinese river trade, while the Nan-yo Yusen Kaisha confines its activities to trade with the South Seas.

Thus the Japanese merchant flag, once a rare sight, is becoming more and more familiar in the harbors of the world. Watchers of ships in port as well as travelers to far shores have alike frequently noted with curiosity the word *maru*, which appears as the second part of the name of every Japanese merchant steamer, like the *Tenyo Maru*. Ships of war, like the now famous *Mutsu*, do not carry this suffix. Various and unsatisfactory have been the explanations of the meaning of this word, and of the reasons for its universal use. The Portland *Oregonian* has come to the conclusion that "to grasp the true meaning of the word, one must be of Japanese birth, and it were as well, perhaps, for all Westerners to content themselves with interpreting it as 'steamship.'" In a discussion which it says is based on an article in a Japanese shipping magazine called *Japan*, *The Oregonian* tries to throw some light on the meaning of this strange "bit of cabalistic nomenclature." *Maru*, we are told, means neither "steamship" nor "ocean." It does signify "in a material way a spiritual concept." We read on:

> "The Japanese themselves are not quite sure about it, when it comes to the quibble. It is ancient of ancients, one of the oldest and most venerable words in their language. Literally it translates as 'round,' hence implying the completeness and perfection of 'circle.' From this understanding of its meaning is derived its application to precious things, to children, for example. The son and heir was once entitled to add the word 'maru' as a suffix to his name in testimony to his importance and value to the line. Later it became associated with the architecture of feudal castles, and these because of their round watch towers received the name as their own. Thence it was but a step to the sea.
>
> "It is said that the warships of Commodore Perry, when they sailed into Yeddo Bay, seemed to the Japanese who watched their impressive entrance to be veritable floating castles. They called the ships by that name and it was so that all great sea-going craft came to be known as 'marus.' When Japan forsook her policy of isolation, built fleets of her own, and sailed the seven seas, the word was retained in that significance. Yet there are other versions of its meaning less historical, but no less interesting.
>
> "One of these relates that the argosies of Japan, in the dim past, were known as 'marus' because they frequently held the fortunes of princely houses. In this sense the application was literally that of 'the precious one,' as applied to the momentous character of the enterprise. Still another version of its relation to the sea is found in the insular character of Japan, when to the islanders the ocean compassed them about as an insuperable boundary. Thus the sea signified not only a complete circle, but a perfection of isolation, and the word 'maru' became forever linked with the ocean."

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Seiberling Cord Tires will become known through high average performance on the road, the one thing that can assure general acceptance and wide distribution.

This company began its service to the public with the definite policy of building only a high-grade product and of putting the Seiberling name on none except the best cord tire it could build.

It had the advantage of beginning with adequate experience, its executives having all worked together for many years in the same business, and having always worked under a manufacturing policy of continuous improvement of product.

It had the further advantages of adequate factory equipment, free of all excessive inventories and liabilities; and without established methods and practices of manufacturing and distributing which might be inefficient and yet hard to change.

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These very important considerations made it possible to combine the latest, and correct, methods and materials into one product.

The Seiberling Cord Tire has had a thorough testing and will give a good account of itself. Distribution has begun and will be extended, as rapidly as we can be assured that the factory standard of excellence is maintained and that the man who sells Seiberling Tires is assured of sufficient product to give real sales service to his customers.

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The one phase of the tire industry that has always had greatest interest for me personally, is the opportunity constantly offered for new developments.

Progress in the improvement of automobile tires is still going on and there is room for great new achievements in increasing the durability of tires and reducing the cost for the benefit of the traveling public. New and better methods of manufacture, more efficient and less costly distribution, better service to the user—all offer opportunity.

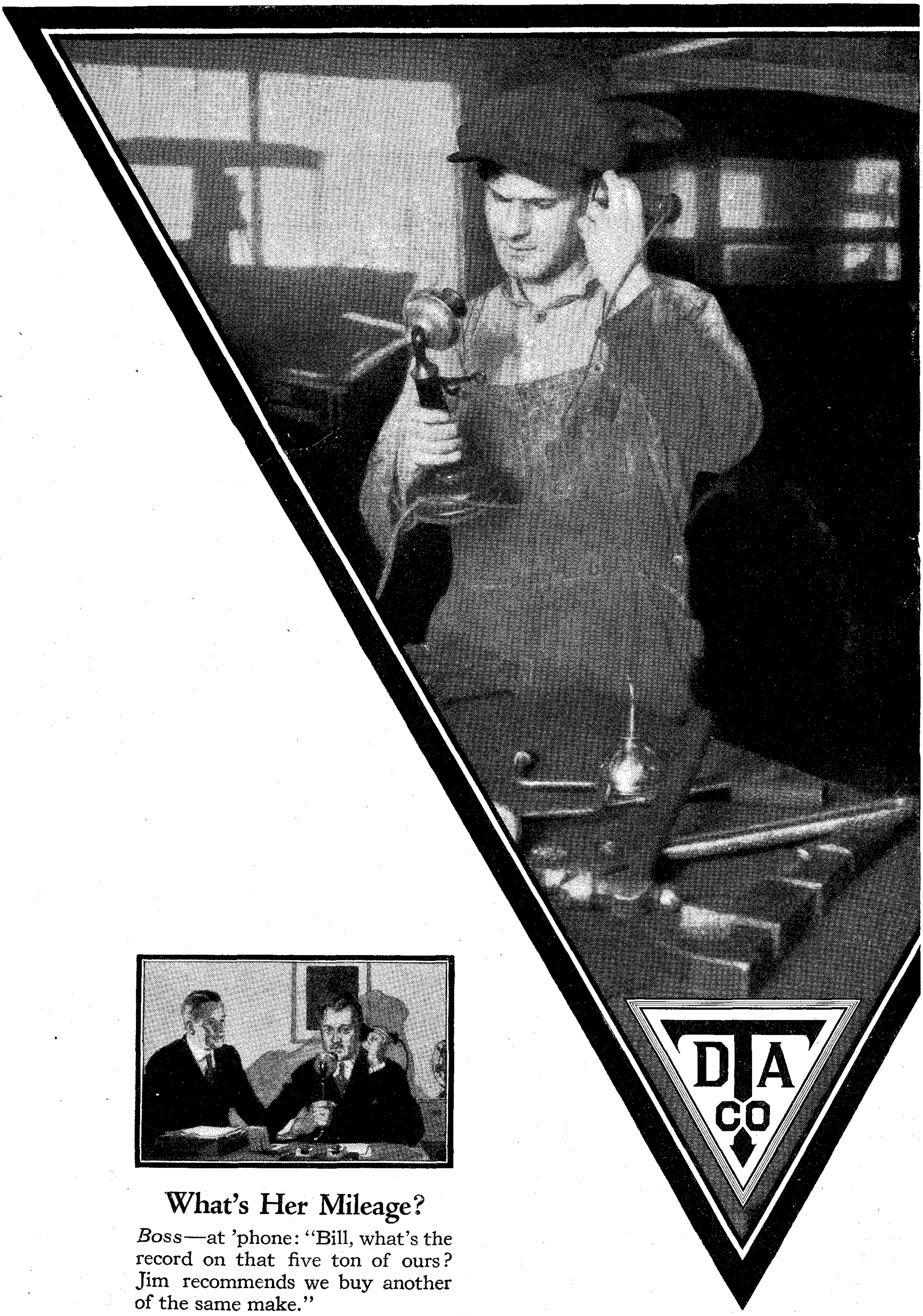
I am personally happy to feel that we are in position in the Seiberling Rubber Company to devote ourselves whole-heartedly to solving these problems, and believe we shall help the tire industry to give the public better, more reliable, and more enduring tires than have ever yet been manufactured.

In the months in which we have been developing the Seiberling Cord Tire, we have already found opportunity to incorporate improvements that will show results in service.

TO TIRE DEALERS: Seiberling Cord Tires are distributed through regular retail channels. We desire to establish connections with good business men who agree with us that high-grade products and service to the user form the right basis for a lasting and mutually profitable relationship. Write or wire Seiberling Rubber Company, Akron, Ohio.

F A Seiberling

President



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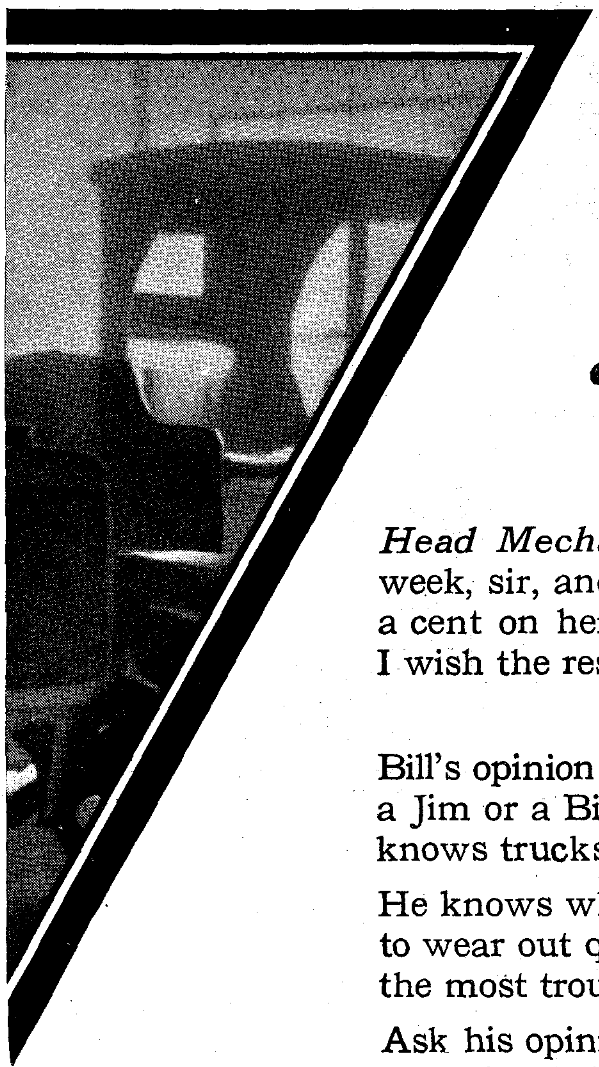
Boss—at 'phone: "Bill, what's the record on that five ton of ours? Jim recommends we buy another of the same make."



"68,000"

Head Mechanic—"Her hubodometer showed 68,000 last week, sir, and outside of gas, oil and grease we haven't spent a cent on her in a year. That old girl's got real stuff in her. I wish the rest of 'em had as good a record."

* * * *

Bill's opinion of trucks is a pretty safe guide. If you haven't a Jim or a Bill in your organization, ask a garage man. He knows trucks at their best—and at their worst.

He knows which parts get the hardest usage, which are apt to wear out quickest, which are easiest to get at, which give the most trouble or the least trouble.

Ask his opinion of Timken Axles. Are they sturdy? Are they simple in design? Are they accessible so that adjustments and repairs, if necessary, can be quickly and economically made?

Ask his opinion, also, about other important units. Your garage man's opinion is unbiased because the only thing he can sell you is service.

And don't forget when you next buy a truck and are figuring up what it costs—*not to purchase it but to own it*—that you can protect your investment with a double guarantee of quality and service. The reputation of the truck builder and the parts maker stand behind your purchase of a truck equipped with nationally known, standardized units.

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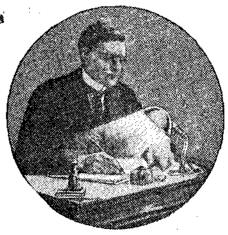
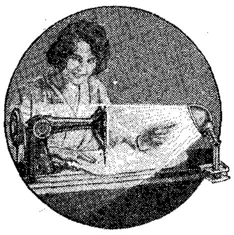


SEW-
Clamp it on sewing machine or table



SHAVE-
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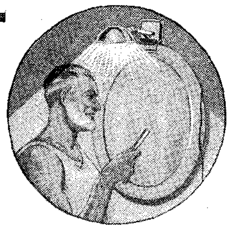

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JAPAN'S POPULATION AND RESOURCES

THE large part now being taken in world affairs by the Empire of Japan seems even more remarkable when we consider actual conditions. Japan itself is about three times the size of the State of New York, and with all her colonies and dependencies is only about one-quarter larger than France. Approximately one-seventh of her land surface can be cultivated, the rest being mountain and forest. Her population is something less than that of Germany, as now constituted. Most of her people are peasant proprietors working tiny holdings on which an American would starve. Taxes are heavy and living costs relatively high. Yet with all this she is accomplishing results that are literally astonishing.

POPULATION AND REVENUE

The Empire of Japan consists of five principal islands—Honshiu (the mainland), Kiushiu, Shikoku, Hokkaido (Yezo), and Taiwan (Formosa); various island groups, including the Kuriles and the Pescadores; the peninsula of Chosen (Korea); and the southern half of the island of Karafuto (Sakhalin). Of these the mainland and Korea are by far the largest, each approximating 33 per cent. of the total area, which is 260,738 square miles, or about the size of Texas.

The population of Japan proper on December 31, 1920, according to "The Statesman's Year-Book," was 55,961,140, a little more than half that of the United States. It is increasing at a rate of about 1.3 per cent. every year. The population of the Empire, including Korea, Formosa, etc., was, on the same date, 77,005,510. This indicates in Japan proper a density of 375 persons to the square mile, rather more than that of Germany, 332, and considerably less than that of Holland, 542, or Belgium, 652. For the Empire as a whole the density of the population is 295 to the square mile, which would seem to indicate that Japan has considerable room for growth within her own borders before she reaches the crowded condition of more than one European country. A point of difference, however, between Japan and Europe is that most of Japan consists of mountains. The two largest cities are Tokyo, with a population of 2,173,162, and Osaka, with 1,252,972. All others are well under a million, the principal ones being, in order of size, (1920), Kobe, Kyoto, Nagoya, Yokohama and Nagasaki.

The revenues of Japan for 1921-22 are estimated by "The Statesman's Year-Book" at 1,562,000,000 yen, about $780,000,000, approximately one-seventh of those of the United States. For the past five years, on the same authority, they have averaged 1,305,000,000 yen annually, or about $652,000,000. The national debt is stated to be 3,115,038,383 yen, about $1,557,519,191, or one-fifteenth that of the United States, the per capita debt of Japan being $27 and of the United States $238.

NATURAL RESOURCES

Owing to its mountainous nature, less than 15 per cent. of the soil of Japan is arable. It is nevertheless predominantly an agricultural country, about 65 per cent. of the people being small farmers or peasants, who hold three-fifths of the tillable land outright, cultivating the remainder as tenants of the larger landowners. The average holding is about three acres in extent. The lack of cultivable land constitutes a very serious problem for the Japanese, but it is hoped that reclamation of waste spaces and intensive cultivation by improved methods can in time remedy this to some extent. Most of the work in the fields is performed by the peasants, but the Government is encouraging the breeding of live stock, so that animals are gradually replacing human labor. The heavy land taxes make it impossible for the small cultivators and holders to live, in most cases, without some subsidiary occupation. Practically every family is, for this reason, engaged in some home industry, such as weaving, basket-, paper-, or braid-making, etc. The peasants are miserably poor and much burdened with debts, on which the rates of interest are extremely high, from 10 to 15 per cent. being the legal rate.

The principal crops in their order are rice, barley, rye, wheat, tobacco, and tea. Of these the rice crop, approximating 250,000,000 bushels per annum, is considerably the largest, being about 60 per cent. of the total.

Nearly a fifth of the farm land of Japan is devoted to the growing of rice, which is of good quality and is the chief food of the Japanese people. As Mr. R. P. Porter notes in "Japan, the Rise of a Modern Power" (Oxford Press, New York):

> Rice, besides being the staple food of the people, is the basis of the national drink, *sake*, and its importance is equal to that of all products combined. It is grown in two varieties, glutinous and non-glutinous, and it is from the latter variety, which forms about one-tenth of the crop, that *sake* is brewed. The area under rice has increased 80 per cent. in the last thirty-five years, and is believed by many to have reached its maximum. Irrigation, chiefly from rivers and reservoirs, but also from lakes, wells, and springs is universal in the cultivation of paddy-fields, and farming communities frequently combine to install a mechanical pumping-plant. Good paddy-fields can be made to bear rice crops in summer, and barley and other crops in winter.

About a million Japanese are employed in raising tea, which is universally drunk in Japan, and about 120,000 acres of land are required for tea culture. Tea-raising centers about the town of Shidzuoka, and the chief tea port is Shimidzu. Eighty per cent. of Japanese tea exports go to America.

In the Japanese farmers' economy, notes "The Japan Year Book," "sericulture" or silk culture, "plays almost as important a part as rice culture." The Government encourages the planting of mulberry trees, and has established a Sericulture Institute. If it were not for the subsidiary occupation furnished by the silk business, "the small Japanese farmer would hardly be able to maintain himself the year round." As "The Japan Year Book" continues:

> By rearing the worms in the three seasons of spring, summer and autumn, farmers can at least double the amount obtained from ordinary farming alone. The discovery that the hatching season may be freely regulated by keeping the eggs in cool places has made it possible to undertake summer and autumn rearing and to double the output of cocoons. As sericulture has seldom succeeded when conducted on a large scale, it looks as if it were especially designed for the benefit of otherwise hard-driven small farmers. . . . One thing that is specially satisfactory is that the art of feeding the worms seems to have made no small progress recently, for the rate of cocoons obtained per one egg-card hatched has increased about twenty per cent. during the last seven years. At any rate, Japanese being proverbially deft-handed are believed to do the job with better success than their rivals, the Italians and Chinese. About seventy to eighty per cent. of the total output of raw silk produced in Japan is of coarse size. This is because Japan's best customer, America, which takes about eighty per cent. of the total output, prefers coarse yarns from Japan, getting the supply of finer silk yarns from France and Italy.

About half the land area of Japan, or 46,318,350 acres, is forest, and of this about 50 per cent. is owned either by the State or by the imperial family. The Japanese have always been devotedly attached to their trees, and scientific forestry methods are in use throughout the country. Tree conservation is everywhere studied, reforestation is continually going on, and the utilization of by-products for fuel, fertilizers, tanning, dyeing, etc., is carefully encouraged. Professor A. S. Hershey, in "Modern Japan," states that there are over sixty institutions in which forestry is taught, in twelve of which it is the exclusive subject of study. The net revenue derived in 1910 from the products and by-products of the forests was, so says this authority, about 7,000,000 yen ($3,500,000). In five years the productivity of the forest areas, under strict governmental supervision, increased more than 60 per cent.

Other writers on Japan call attention to the groves of bamboo of many varieties, which are a perfect treasure house for the Japanese. The roots are edible, and the slender stalks are used for myriad purposes, from umbrella ribs to scaffolding.

The fostering care given by the Government to camphor-trees and the camphor industry is noticed by several authorities. Millions of young trees are set out yearly, and all wasteful and expensive methods are rigorously forbidden. By the preservation and judicious exploitation of the trees Japan has made herself the leading

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Dental science has declared a war on film. That is the cause of most tooth troubles. And brushing methods of the past did not effectively combat it.

Film is that viscous coat you feel. It clings to teeth, enters crevices and stays. Then night and day it may do serious damage.

Film absorbs stains, making the teeth look dingy. It is the basis of tartar. It holds food substance which ferments and forms acid. It holds the acid in contact with the teeth to cause decay.

Millions of germs breed in it. They, with tartar, are the chief cause of pyorrhea. Very few people have escaped the troubles caused by film.

Two film combatants

Now two combatants have been found. Many careful tests have proved their efficiency.

A new-day tooth paste has been created, and these two film combatants are embodied in it. The paste is called Pepsodent.

Now every time you brush your teeth you can fight those film-coats in these effective ways.

Also starch and acids

Another tooth enemy is starch. It also clings to teeth, and in fermenting it forms acids.

To fight it Nature puts a starch digestant in saliva. She also puts alkalis there to neutralize the acids.

Pepsodent multiplies the salivary flow. It multiplies the starch digestant in the saliva. It multiplies the alkalis. Thus these teeth protecting forces, twice a day, are much increased.

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These things must be done. Teeth with film or starch or acids are not white or clean or safe. You know yourself, no doubt, that old tooth-brushing methods are inadequate.

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Make this pleasant ten-day test and watch your teeth improve.

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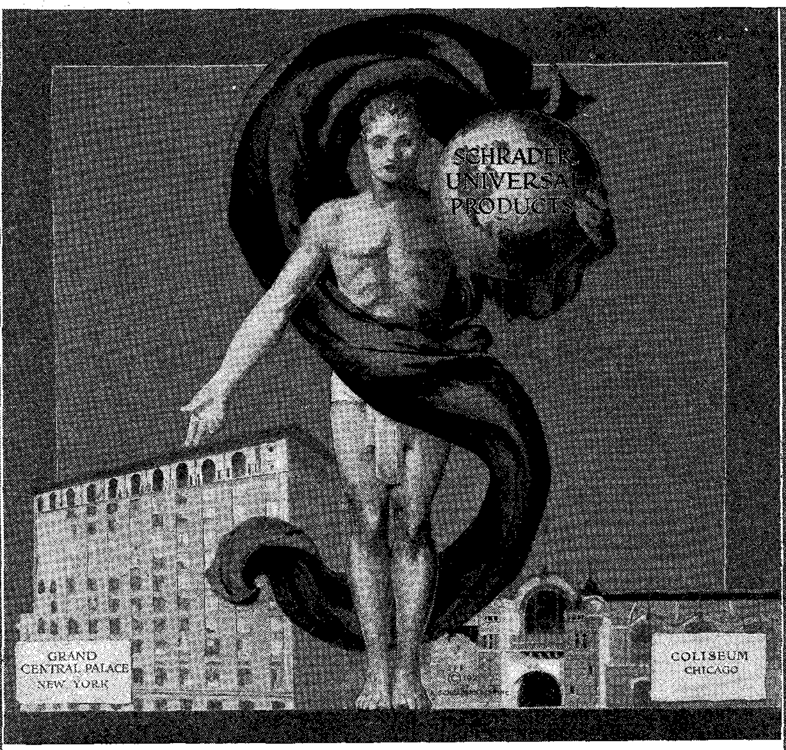

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JAPAN'S POPULATION, WEALTH AND RESOURCES

Continued

source of the world's supply of this commodity.

Japan's salt supply comes entirely from sea water, which is drained on natural and artificial marshes.

Fishing, as is natural in an island empire, is one of the leading industries of Japan, no less than a million families being engaged in the various enterprises connected with it, which are carefully fostered and extended by the Government. Fish are everywhere abundant along the coasts, from the tropics to the frozen seas. "The Statesman's Year-Book" gives the value of the raw marine products in 1918 as 171,185,081 yen, and that of the manufactured products as 139,210,456 yen, a total of 310,395,537 yen, or about $155,197,768. Further information on Japanese fisheries is taken from Mr. Porter's books:

> At the Marine Biological Station in Sagami over four hundred species of marine products have been classified which are of importance either as food or as fertilizer, or as providing material for various industries. The species chiefly fished for are the bonito, sardine, tunny, tai, anchovy, mackerel, and yellow tail, and of shellfish the seaear and oyster. But the vast majority of Japanese fishermen, with their unseaworthy craft that can barely sail against the wind, must confine their operations to within a very short distance of land, and the effect of many years of reckless and improvident fishing is now being felt, some species having become almost extinct. Modern methods are adopted but slowly; the curing business is still in its infancy, and, finally, lack of capital makes speedy and effectual reform impossible.

The two most important minerals of Japan are coal and copper. She has large deposits, both of bituminous and anthracite coal and, with her acquired Manchurian rights, has an enormous total supply. She ranks third to-day among copper-producing nations, and has a fair annual yield of petroleum, with a good prospect of further development. Petroleum has become so important a factor in modern industry that it may be well to quote Mr. R. P. Porter's remark that—

> Real progress in the production of petroleum commenced when the aid of American geologists and engineers was first sought forty years ago. The oil-fields are mainly situated in the inner zone of North Japan. Until the early 90's shallow hand-dug wells were the usual feature, but American methods have since been more generally adopted, and wells have been sunk to depths of 230 fathoms. There are now 3,000 producing wells on the Echigo field alone, and some remarkable gushers have been tapped.

Sulfur is abundant in Japan, the country being largely volcanic, and gold, silver and zinc are also mined in considerable quantities, as well as a small amount of lead and of antimony. Iron is found, but in amounts wholly insufficient for the rapidly increasing national needs. The value of the product of the principal minerals in 1919, as given by "The Statesman's Year-Book," was:

Coal	442,540,000 yen	or	$221,270,000
Steel	72,666,000 "	"	36,333,000
Copper	67,580,000 "	"	33,790,000
Petroleum	42,562,000 "	"	21,281,000
Pig Iron	38,872,000 "	"	19,436,000

JAPANESE POSSESSIONS

"Chosen (Korea), Taiwan (Formosa), and Karafuto (Sakhalin)," says J. I. C. Clarke in "Japan at First Hand," "are the scenes of continuous effort to bring backward populations into the line of modern progress." The results, he feels, are favorable, and the advance in education, agriculture, and manufacture is encouraging.

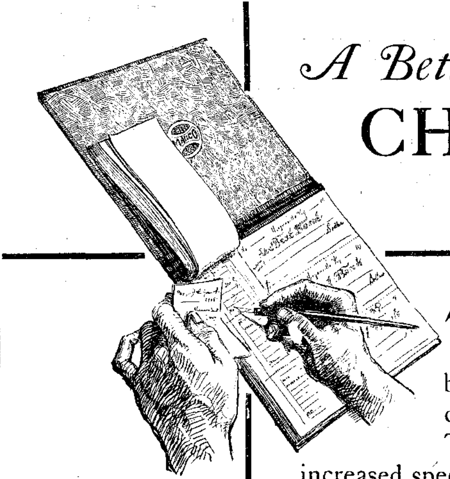
Korea is entirely an agricultural country. The cultivated area is about 7,770,000 acres, according to "The Statesman's Year-Book," which gives the principal crops as rice, wheat, beans, and grains of all kinds, besides tobacco and cotton. Live stock is raised as a by-product of agriculture, the cattle being known for their size and quality. Gold-mining is carried on, and promises to be successful. Copper, iron, and coal are abundant, but their development has been impeded by insufficient means of communication. Graphite and mica are also found in considerable quantities. The value of the mineral products in 1918 was 30,828,074 yen, or about $15,414,000.

The Korean revenue and expenditure for 1920–21 is estimated at 113,000,000 yen, about $56,500,000.

During 1919 Korea imported goods to the amount of 280,786,318 yen ($140,393,159) and exported products to the amount of 219,665,781 yen ($109,832,890). She has about 1,200 miles of railroad carrying over 12,000,000 passengers yearly, 562 post-offices, 2,000 miles of telegraph line, and 1,400 miles of telephone lines.

Formosa is a wild and backward country, but remarkably productive. Its revenues for 1920–21 amounted to 94,451,236 yen ($47,225,631). Its commerce is largely with Japan, to which the exports in 1919 amounted to 141,885,540 yen ($70,942,770), the imports totaling 90,526,766 yen ($45,263,384). The chief exports are tea, sugar, camphor, and coal, the principal imports being opium, rice, oil-cake, and beans. There are roads throughout the island and about 400 miles of railroad in operation. Mining, sugar, and tobacco are important industries. The sugar plantations are especially promising, the companies operating them having recently combined for efficiency and economy.

Japanese Sakhalin is a heavily forested country, producing coal and alluvial gold. The most important industry is the herring fishery. Large areas are fitted for agriculture and pasturage, and Japanese settlers are being encouraged to cultivate them. The revenue and expenditure for 1920–21 are estimated at 9,705,000 yen ($4,852,500).



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WHAT IS JAPANESE DEMOCRACY?

A DIALOGUE

The Talkers:

Franklin Clay, an American newspaper man, on his way to Japan.

Shigeru Matsumoto, a Japanese merchant of New York on his annual visit to Japan.

Scene:

An American railway train crossing the continent to San Francisco. The American and the Japanese are the only persons seated in the smoking compartment of the Pullman. Through the Middle Western States the train moves swiftly, in a fog that closes up on the windows like gray felt. The lights of the compartment show the Japanese merchant, with a studious air, reading a large heavy volume. The American newspaper man has fallen asleep with a Japanese-English magazine lying on his knees. At his side is a pile of periodical literature about the Orient. In his sleep a movement of his arm sends these magazines with a clatter to the floor. He wakes to find the Japanese merchant picking them up and laying them on the seat.

Clay: (Coming to with a start) Gosh, I dreamt I was there!

Matsumoto: (Smiling) You mean in Japan?

Clay: Yes, my newspaper is sending me there to find out everything about the place and the people in ninety days.

Matsumoto: You may not find out everything, but you can find out a great deal in that time. If you like, you can begin now to pick up information. I am going back on my annual business visit, which I have been making regularly for the past six years.

Clay: One of the things that puzzles us, is how you people have an Emperor, who is really a supreme sovereign, having attributes almost of divinity, and yet you stress so much the fact that Japan is a democracy.

Matsumoto: I'll answer that by quoting a Japanese correspondent, Adachi, of the New York *World.* Read this. (Hands Clay a newspaper clipping taken from between the leaves of his book.)

Clay: Thank you. (Holds the clipping and reads as follows:)

> "The attitude of the people of Japan toward their Imperial House . . . has never been seen since the days of Abraham, the patriarch. A number of foreign observers of Japan have written learnedly of 'Emperor worship' and 'theocratic form of government' in Japan. But these are all half-truth. We, the people of Japan, do not worship our Emperor in the sense the American understands that word. To the popular mind of Japan the Emperor is and has always been an Over-Father of the people. He has never been a political autocrat and dictator. When our farmers suffer from a drought or tidal waves, their eyes turn instinctively to the palace. And for the simplest reason in the world—they have always known the Emperor as the very first person to come to the help of the distrest. One of the most familiar among the old tales of classic Japan pictures the Emperor stripping himself bare on a wintry night that he might the more realize the trials of his people battling against the rigor of a heartless season. This explains the reason why the Constitution of Japan is the only bloodless charter of liberty known to history. It was not wrested from the hands of the sovereign; it was the free gift of the ruler to the ruled."

Matsumoto: That's pretty clear, isn't it? (Clay nods.) Authentic, too.

Clay: Well, what about your Elder Statesmen—are they the men higher up?

Matsumoto: The Elder Statesmen owe their position to the achievements of their careers and their judgment is called upon by the Emperor for the consideration of important national affairs, especially for the selection of the Premier. Formerly the Elder Statesmen often wielded great influence upon the direction of Japan's domestic as well as international policies. But just about the time you people begin thoroughly to understand the Genro, which you call the Elder Statesmen, we are discovering that as democracy grows stronger the Genro become weaker and must eventually fade away. They were great men all, in their day, as the *World's* Japanese correspondent truly says, especially in the difficult periods preceding and following the restoration of the Imperial House to power. To-day, he explains, they are as much an anachronism in the political life of Japan as a horse-car would be on Broadway. They have no status in the governmental system of Japan, nor does the Constitution of the Empire recognize any such body as the Genro.

Clay: But they are there with the punch, just the same, are they not?

Matsumoto: (Laughs) They have had the punch in their day and one of them still exercises marvelous power, as the *World's* correspondent says. They fill the tremendously important position of being the intimate and personal advisers to the throne; they are consulted by the Emperor on all the grave questions of the state—so important that the Premier would not dare to decide without the sanction of the Emperor himself.

Clay: And when the Elder Statesmen pass out, what then?

Matsumoto: The Privy Council remains, but whether it will take the place of the Elder Statesmen depends on the ability of the men who compose it. But you can be sure of this, as Adachi relates, that the dominance of state policies by an oligarchy is out of fashion in Japan as everywhere else.

Clay: Since you say fashion, what will be Japan's next showing?

Matsumoto: Oh, we don't change as quickly as the fashions, though we do admit that in becoming modernized we are good specimens of what you call fast workers. Our changes now lead us towards party government on an approved pattern, for instance, of such a democratic state as England. Moreover, the leading political students of Japan believe that under the newly created Regent, Hirohito, Japan will become even more democratic than most of the Western democracies.

Clay: That's putting it strong.

Matsumoto: Well, you know how ardent a convert in religion is. We are converts to the ideas of Western democracy—and we are ardent.

Clay: But just how high a pressure of motive power does your ardor give you?

Matsumoto: Making Japan a democracy may seem slow work, judged by Western ideas of progress, but from the Oriental standpoint, the process has been sudden and precipitous. That's the remark of Adachi, who understands both Japan and America pretty well.

Clay: But does he prove it?

Matsumoto: See for yourself. He tells us that in 1899, the year after the Constitution of the Empire was adopted, when the first session of the Imperial Diet was opened, the number of voters was 467,887. To-day there are about 3,000,000 voters, and this increase of voters results largely from the lowering of the tax assessment qualification that applies to voters.

Clay: But you are still somewhat behind us in the matter of universal suffrage. Are you not?

Matsumoto: (Smiling) Well, you yourselves were not madly precipitate in extending the suffrage to women.

Clay: I don't know. There are still some people who think we were hasty.

Matsumoto: To give you an idea of the suffrage struggle in Japan, look at the second column of the clipping from the *World* I gave you and begin reading at the place marked two with a blue pencil.

Clay: (Reads the following.)

"Witness, for example, the progress of the universal suffrage movement in Japan, headed by such men as Yukio Ozaki, who had been an eloquent leader of the Opposition party called the Kenseikai, and who was read out of it because of his uncompromising attitude on this very question of suffrage. It culminated in the stormy session of the House of Representatives in February, 1920, when Premier Hara found it imperative to invoke an Imperial decree to dissolve it. Witness, also, the political sentiment among the university students of Japan. The Imperial University of Tokyo has always been a political Wall Street of Japan. There one can almost always get the first hint of a coming storm; there they play the high politics without the least reservation and caution—it has proved so often the forerunner and fountain-head of political thought of Japan. And to-day the attitude of the student body there is extremely democratic. To be sure, the university students have been for some time democratic in their attitude toward domestic politics. But they have gone a step further now. In the past they have been consistently imperialistic in their attitude toward the foreign policy of the Empire—ever since the days of the Russian War, when they upheld with fiery enthusiasm the aggressive imperialism of the now famous Seven Professors, headed by Professor Tomizu of the Imperial University. All that is changed now. Instead of yelling their young heads off for the immediate occupation and annexation of everything east of Lake Baikal, as they did sixteen years ago, they to-day would like to see a free and independent Korea. . . .

"Before the World War universal suffrage was more or less an academic joke among the book-loving politicians of Japan. To-day it is 'a burning question.'

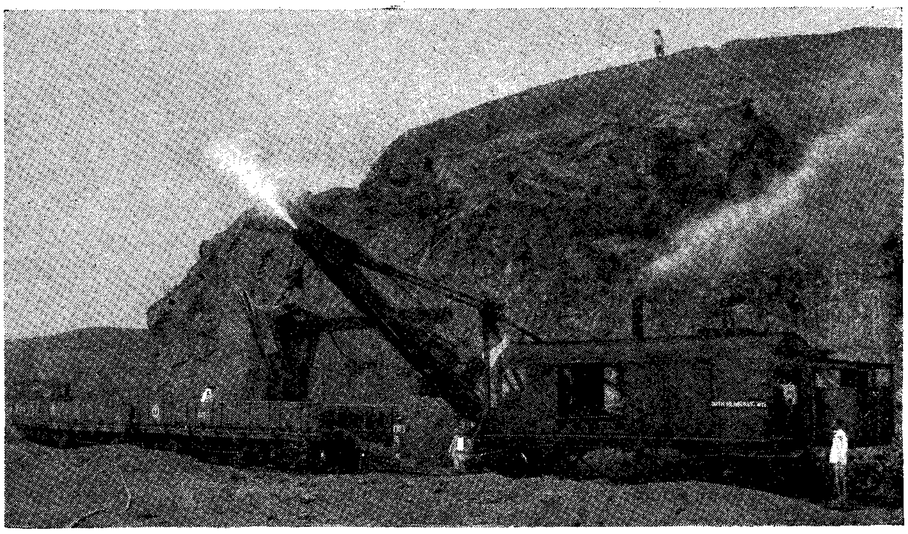
"The measure for universal manhood suffrage was overwhelmingly defeated in the forty-third session of the Diet. But it remains as one of the livest corpses in Japanese politics. You can not keep it down. With the coming of universal suffrage, Japanese labor will come into its own, politically—and with more than one brass band. Then such men as Bunji Suzuki, who delights in the sonorous title of 'the Gompers of Japan,' and others out of the labor ranks will be sure to enter the list as the soldiers of democracy in Japan.

"But after all is said and done, the newly created Regent, Crown Prince Hirohito, will do more for the general cause of democracy in Japan than any other one factor.

"He will be the inspiration to the movement—an inspiration, moreover, in living flesh and blood. And in this case the inspiration is no other than the actual sovereign of Japan. The effect of this on the future of democracy in Japan is beyond all words."

CLAY: Speaking of labor coming into its own as a political factor, may I ask you something about Japan's political parties?

MATSUMOTO: Altho the representative system of Japan dates from 1890, the political party is of much earlier origin. The first political party in Japan was that of the Liberals, called Jiyu-to, and it was founded in 1880. Then came the Progressive party, founded in 1882 and in Japanese called Kaishin-to. The earlier



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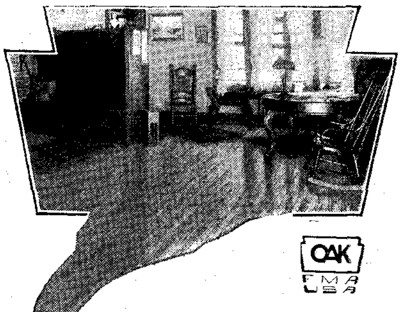

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WHAT IS JAPANESE DEMOCRACY?

Continued

party was the more radical. Soon after 1882 the party of the Conservative and bureaucratic element was formed, and known as the Teisei-to (Imperialist). The last named failed of support and vanished from the field in 1884.

Clay: How would you contrast your parties in the main with ours?

Matsumoto: With us all political parties equally avow a progressive policy and there is little to differentiate them as to platforms—I speak from "The Japan Year Book." They exist not on any fixt line of reasoning, but chiefly from historical, personal and other external grounds. Hitherto a noteworthy feature in Japanese politics is the absence of Conservative, Labor, and Socialistic elements as organized power. As to what the future may bring—?

Clay: What are the active political parties now?

Matsumoto: The Seiyukai, which was founded by the late Prince Ito in 1900. The general election in May, 1920, secured for the Seiyukai, as Ministerial party, an overwhelming majority. The elections of the provincial assemblies a few months earlier resulted also in a triumph of the Seiyukai. The restored election system of the small district is highly favorable to Seiyukai candidates.

Clay: And after the Seiyukai?

Matsumoto: Next we come to the Opposition party, the Kensei-kai, which was formed in 1913; and then, the Kokumin-to, or Nationalist party, organized in March, 1910, by members identified with the Progressives. The Kokumin-to is historically the remnant of the Progressive party created in 1882. Of the neutral members of the Diet some follow the Seiyukai, others the Kensei-kai, and so on. As to the strength of the parties, you will read in "The Japan Year Book" that in June, 1920, the relative strength of the various parties in the House of Representatives was as follows:

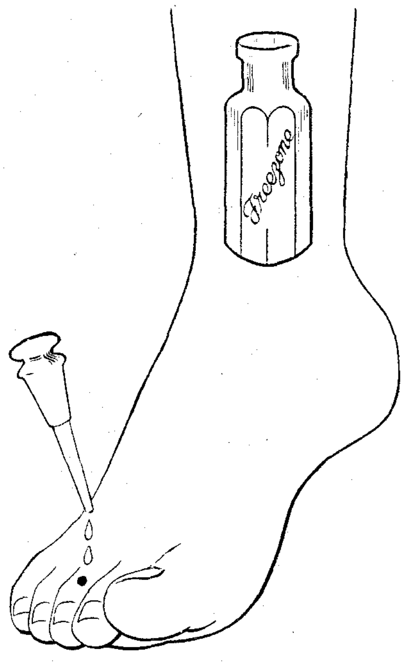
Seiyukai	281
Kensei-kai	109
Kokumin-to	30
Koshin Club (newly formed by pro-Seiyukai Members)	26
Independents	17
Total	463

Clay: In what element does the strength of the present Government lie?

Matsumoto: I have heard it said that the farmers form the strongest backing of the present Government. Naturally their power is more noticeable in the rural than in the town districts.

Clay: Where we have the Congress, you have the Imperial Diet, isn't that so?

Matsumoto: In a general way, yes. The two legislative Houses of the Diet, as you will see in "The Japan Year Book," enjoy virtually the same rights and privi-



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leges except in the discussion of budgets. In the matter of budgets the Lower House has precedence over the Upper. The term of the Peers in the Upper House is seven years. The term of the commoners is four. Those members of the Upper House who occupy their seat through nomination by the Emperor are life-members. With the exception of the Hereditary Peers, all the other members of the House of Peers and of the House of Representatives receive two thousand yen, about one thousand dollars, normally, per year and free passage over the government railroads. The President and Vice-President of the two Houses are allowed five thousand and three thousand respectively, while the special allowance of 10,000 yen each to the President of each House was voted in 1910.

CLAY: What are the functions of the Emperor?

MATSUMOTO: He has the right of convoking, opening, closing or proroguing the Imperial Diet, and also of dissolving the House of Representatives. He has the right to issue urgency ordinances, when the Imperial Diet is not sitting, to be submitted to its approval at the next session. He has the right to issue the ordinances necessary to put the laws in operation or to maintain public peace and order. He has the right to take supreme command of the Army and Navy and to determine the organization of the service. He has the right to declare war, make peace, conclude treaties, proclaim a state of siege, etc.

CLAY: How about the House of Peers?

MATSUMOTO: The House of Peers is composed, first, of Princes of the Blood; second, Peers, that is, Princes and Marquises who sit in virtue of their right when they reach the age of 25; third, Counts, Viscounts and Barons, who elect their representatives, selected from among their respective orders; fourth, men of learning or of distinguished public service nominated by the Emperor; fifth, representatives of the higher taxpayers, elected from among themselves, one from one prefecture. Each of the three inferior orders of peerage may not return more than one-fifth of the total number of peers, while the non-titled members shall not exceed in number the aggregate strength of the titled members.

CLAY: What about the House of Representatives?

MATSUMOTO: According to the new election law of 1918–19 the House is composed of members elected by male Japanese subjects of not less than 25 years of age and paying a direct tax of not less than three yen as against the previous limit of ten yen. The incorporated cities containing not less than 30,000 inhabitants form independent electoral districts, and are entitled to

(Continued on page 68)

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LABOR IN MODERN JAPAN

THE LABOR MOVEMENT and the labor problem, as we understand them, are extremely recent developments in the Land of the Rising Sun. Until late years shops were small, most work was done in the home, and the relation between employer and employee was that of father and family, or master and servant. So for many years after the introduction of modern ways, the Japanese capitalist had a remarkable advantage in an almost inexhaustible supply of cheap, contented labor. According to the industrial census of 1918 there were 1,409,196 employees, more than half of them women, working in factories employing more than ten hands each; at the same time there were 464,727 miners, and five and a half million families devoting part or all of their time to agriculture. The factory system came in with a rush and brought with it the conditions which existed a century or more ago in industrial Europe. As Mr. Charles Merz writes of the development of Japanese industry in the New York *World:*

> "Hours have been long—even women in most silk and cotton mills have worked twelve hours a day. Wages have been low. Japanese laborers have demonstrated their ability to get along on wages that would mean starvation for an American. And of course, rice costs less than beef. Still, fifty cents a day is not a princely stipend. And fifty cents a day has been considered high.
>
> "Again, women workers and child workers have been recklessly treated by mine and factory. Modern statistics are hard to get; but in 1918 there were apparently some 80,000 women working underground, in mines—and 22,000 of them were not yet twenty years of age; in 1912 there were half a million girls in the factories—and 50,000 of them, girls working twelve hours a day, had not reached the age of fourteen."

Discontent, bound to come under such circumstances, was enormously increased by the high prices, profiteering, and industrial boom that came with the war. As Mr. Merz quotes Bunji Suzuki, a leading Japanese labor leader:

> "The extreme rapidity with which industries grew, with new factories springing up like mushrooms while old establishments greatly increased their plants, resulted in a demand for workmen exceeding the supply, with the consequence that it became necessary for employers to better the treatment of their employees out of fear that otherwise these might leave for service in other establishments where they might receive better treatment. Where such improvements were not granted voluntarily, they were often forced through by means of strikes."

Here was something new—strikes. Most strikes were for increased wages, altho a Tokyo correspondent of *The Nation* points out that recently workers have been demanding freedom to join unions with recognition of those unions, and also a "dismissal allowance," that is, advanced wages depending on length of service to be paid when shops shut down because of slackness of trade. On both points, says the writer, "the unions have actually won out in a number of places, and the second matter is now in greater or less degree in practise among Japanese employers." In 1919, according to "The Japan Year Book," there were 497 strikes, involving 60,000 workers, the strikes having been most common in the mining districts. In October of the same year there were 792 labor organizations, with 230,000 members. The past six months, writes Mr. Merz in the *World* article already quoted, "have, despite hard times, been characterized by the most spectacular labor disturbances in the history of Japan—a strike in the great copper mines at Ashio, a 'sympathetic strike' (the most approved Western technique) that took all the workmen from the Furukawa Smelting Works at Ashio, a strike in the Osaka Iron Works, and, finally, a strike in the Kawasaki Dockyard Company and the Mitsubishi Shipyard, the two largest shipbuilding companies in Japan." In the last-named strike, during which 35,000 workmen marched through the streets of Kobe, the strikers apparently lost, most of them going back to work practically on their employers' terms. But, agree several writers, the spectacular features of the strike, the order kept by the men, and the organizing ability shown, have made a very strong impression. Besides strikes there have been May Day processions, labor demonstrations and political labor movements. The Government has taken measures to repress agitation and relieve suffering. A tentative factory law passed in 1916 regulates working hours and provides for relief to injured and incapacitated workers. A number of cooperative and mutual aid associations have come into being.

In the seven years from 1913 to 1919 the cost of living in Japan is said to have practically trebled. A survey made in Tokyo among working families of the ordinary type, "The Japan Year Book" notes, showed average monthly expenses per family to be 60 yen ($30), divided as follows:

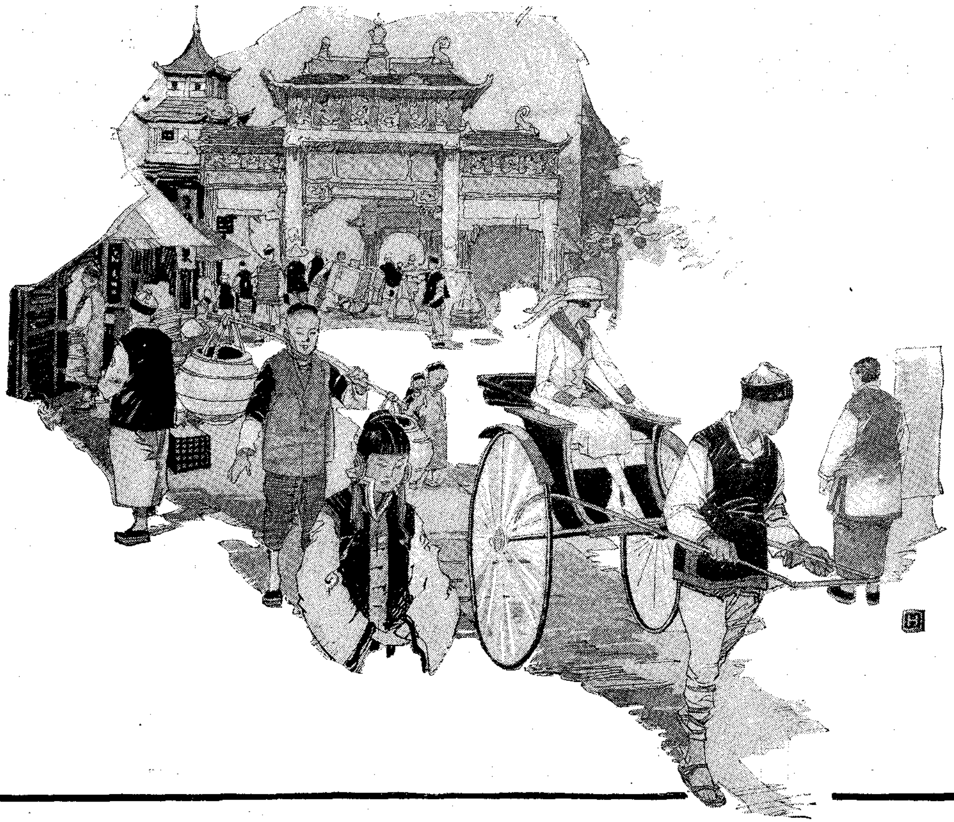
Food	31.91	Communication	1.01
Rent	5.87	Social	1.03
Fuel	3.98	Amusement	1.03
Clothing	6.22	Interest	1.10
Health	2.78	Savings	1.48
Education	1.77		

Very recent data on wages are difficult to obtain, but the following from "The Japan Year Book" shows both the low level of wages in Japan and the recent rapid rise. These sums are in yen, valued at fifty cents:

Occupation	*Daily Wage*	
	1915	*1918*
Day laborer	.55	.96
Farm laborer	.46	.75
Silk spinner (female)	.33	.43
Blacksmith	.69	1.17
Shipbuilder	.96	1.68
Carpenter	.84	1.30
Weaver (male)	.46	.79
Weaver (female)	.30	.50
Maid servant (monthly)	3.13	4.72

The presence of great and newly acquired wealth is almost as important a factor in producing labor discontent as low wages or bad working conditions. "The Japan Year Book" cites the *Jiji* as authority for the statement that Japan had in 1916 2,201 families worth more than 500,000 yen. Fifty of these are ship-owners who have the European War to thank for their sudden fortune. With the exception of a very few old and noble families all these plutocrats have amassed their fortune during the last forty or fifty years. As the "Year Book" notes further, out of the 2,201 two each are credited with over two hundred millions, two each seventy millions, while thirty-nine are valued between ten and sixty millions each, the total plutocratic wealth being estimated at 347,000,000 yen.

To-day there is much unrest in Japan, largely owing to the economic depression and the fact that prices are still held at a high level. It seems likely to a Tokyo correspondent of the New York *Evening Post* that "unless the Japanese capitalists as a class apply generous and general remedies, greater troubles than those which have occurred may be expected." Professor Abe of Waseda University notes in an *Evening Post* article the rise of the democratic movement in Japan. The laboring classes, he says, are beginning to see how "militarism holds them in bondage. They are demanding universal suffrage, for this, they believe, will overthrow both bureaucracy and militarism. Mr. Ozaki is to-day the leader of the movement for reduction of armaments and for universal suffrage. Great popular meetings are held wherever he goes." But Mr. Merz, in the *World* article already quoted, admits that while trade unionism is taking hold in Japan, it has not as yet any real international significance; that is, "organized labor in Japan affects neither for good nor for ill the foreign policy of its government." And a writer in *The Far East* (Tokyo) notes a setback in the labor movement, which he believes to be due to the economic depression and the appearance of factional tendencies in the Japanese labor ranks. He advises readers that "the awakening of organized labor must not be understood (without any qualification) in Occidental terms."



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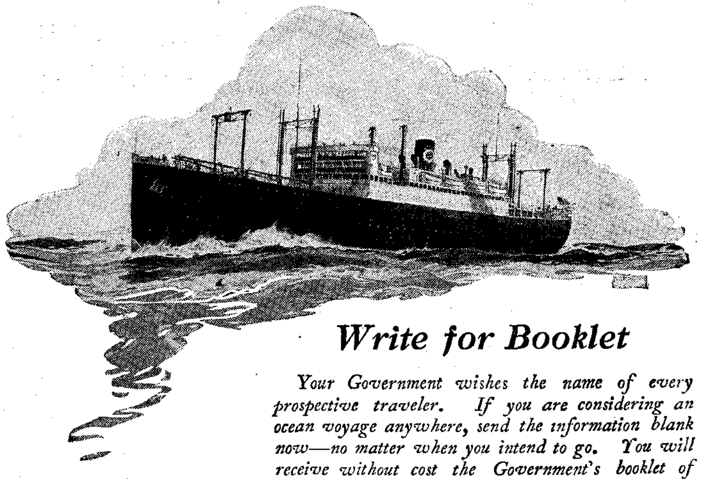

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ORIGIN OF THE RACE

Ethnologists believe the original inhabitants to have been savages of a low type, possibly ancestors of the "hairy Ainus" still found in northern Japan. They were invaded from the mainland at a very early date. The invaders, like the Danes and Saxons in Britain, first subdued and then amalgamated with the natives, so that the Japanese of to-day is of mixed blood, with a considerable percentage of Malay, Manchurian and Korean in his make-up. The newcomers founded a state on the main island under Jimmu, but considerably later than the legends indicate. Here they developed a confederacy of more or less independent feudal chieftains, of whom the Emperor was the hereditary leader. Having won, and being compelled to hold, their lands by the sword, they were necessarily a nation of warriors. Their religion was a combination of ancestor and Emperor worship.

INTRODUCTION OF CHINESE CULTURE
(A. D. 200 to 600)

Early in the Christian Era Chinese influences began to make themselves felt in Japan. Writing was introduced from China, and with it came Celestial culture and philosophy, notably the teachings of Confucius. Korean and Chinese artizans and merchants immigrated into Japan, bringing their arts and crafts. All these the Japanese accepted. About the beginning of the seventh century A.D. Buddhism was adopted by the Japanese, taking its place beside Shinto, the old religion.

GROWTH OF FEUDAL POWER (600 to 1192)

From the seventh century to the end of the twelfth Japan was the scene of a constant struggle for power between different groups of nobles. The Emperors were mere puppets in their hands but, owing to their acknowledged sanctity, no attempt was made to depose them. Gradually an era of luxury set in, similar to that in France under the later Bourbon kings. The nobles, under the leadership of the great Fugiwara family, indulged in every sort of extravagance, the people being taxed oppressively to support their expenditures. Finally the warrior clans, the Bushi, had to be called in to the capital to quell an incipient rebellion. They overawed the nobility, weakened by its excesses, and seized control of the government. After a sharp fight for supremacy between their leaders, Yoritomo, one of Japan's great political geniuses, was left with absolute power.

RISE OF THE SHOGUNS (1192 to 1542)

He established himself as "Shogun," or general-in-chief, and ruled Japan for the military caste in the name of the Emperor, who was treated as a God but had no power. Yoritomo's heirs were ousted by the Hojo family, which retained supreme power for nearly a century and a half, governing through Shoguns they appointed and controlled. During their supremacy, Kublai Khan, the Mongol Emperor of China, made an unsuccessful attempt to conquer Japan, his armada, like that of Spain, being destroyed in part by the defending fleet and in part by storms.

FIRST CONTACT WITH EUROPE
(1542 to 1638)

In 1542 the Portuguese reached Japan, the first Europeans to visit the country. They brought with them gunpowder and Christianity. The first revolutionized Japan's methods of warfare. The second, introduced by the Jesuit, Francis Xavier, prospered exceedingly. It was favored at court and at one time counted over half a million adherents. Hideyoshi, one of the greatest of Japanese leaders, now became regent. He aspired to foreign conquest and attacked and temporarily subjugated Korea. He was followed by the great Iyeyasu, who consolidated the power of the Shoguns, his family, the Tokugawa, continuing to rule Japan for two hundred and fifty years. His immediate successors stamped out the Christians, whose influence they feared. Their stubborn resistance aroused such strong feeling against foreigners that in 1638 all commerce with other nations was forbidden and no Japanese were permitted to leave the country on pain of death. The Dutch and Chinese, however, were allowed to conduct a very limited trade.

DECLINE OF THE SHOGUNS (1638 to 1853)

The country, tho hermetically sealed, prospered under the Tokugawas. Wealth increased and the arts and literature were encouraged. Luxury once more crept in and the Shoguns themselves became the puppets of their ministers, shadow rulers for shadow emperors, and the land grew once more ripe for revolt. By the middle of the nineteenth century the impending break was unexpectedly precipitated from without.

THE GREAT AWAKENING (1853 to 1894)

The Occidental Powers were now competing for the trade of the Orient and turned eager eyes on Japan. In 1853 an American fleet, under Commodore Perry, visited Japan and so imprest the Shogun that he concluded with the United States a treaty opening certain ports and authorizing trade between the two countries. This was followed by similar agreements with other Powers. Two factions now arose in Japan, one favoring intercourse with foreigners, the other strongly opposed to it. The Shogun became identified with the former, the Emperor with the latter. The Powers now learned that the Emperor was the titular ruler of Japan and insisted upon his ratifying the treaties. This he did, being alarmed by a threat of action on the part of the Allied fleet. The waning power of the Shoguns was broken by this direct appeal to the Emperor, and in 1867 the last Tokugawa Shogun resigned his office, which was at once abolished by imperial decree. Under the first independent

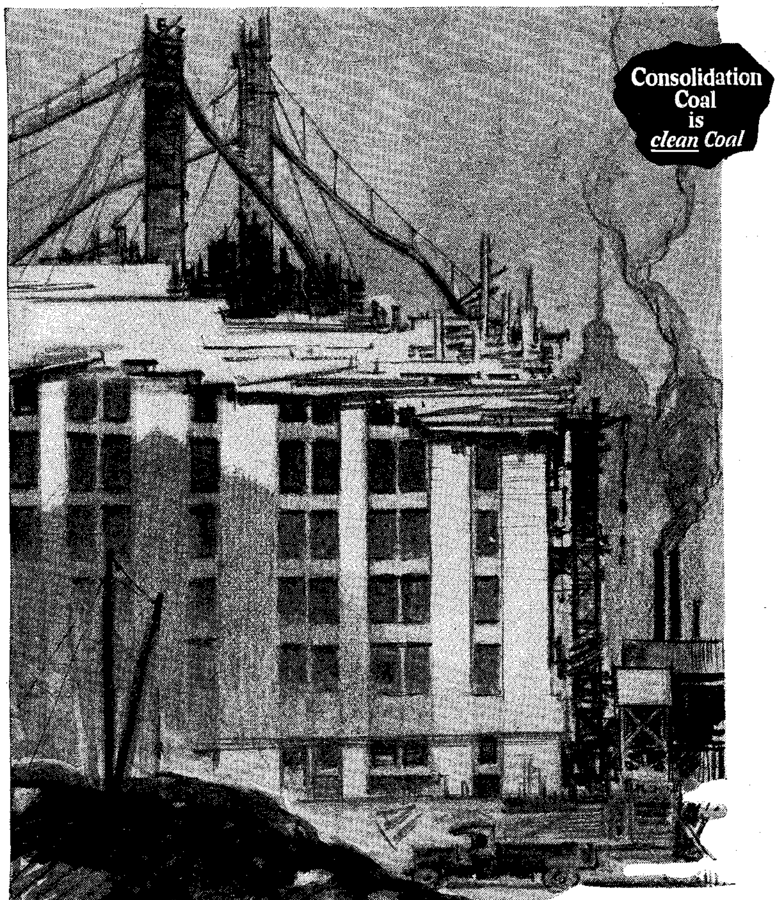
Emperor, Meiji, the government of Japan was completely reorganized. The feudal chieftains resigned their fiefs, receiving a partial monetary compensation. The loyalty of their followers was transferred to the Emperor, in whom the administration of affairs was centralized. In place of the samurai, or hereditary swordsmen, a national army was organized on European models and drawn from all classes. A complete new code of laws was evolved. Shinto, the old religion, was renewed and centered upon the Emperor. There was much resistance by the conservative element, but it was put down. Foreign ideas triumphed and in 1889 an elaborate new constitution was officially promulgated. It provided for a house of peers and a house of elected representatives, a cabinet responsible to the Emperor, a judiciary, etc.

WARS WITH CHINA AND RUSSIA
(1894 to 1905)

In 1894 a war occurred between China and Japan over their conflicting claims in Korea. A war ensued in which China was decisively beaten and her navy destroyed. She was compelled to sue for peace, to pay a large indemnity, and to cede to Japan the island of Formosa and the Pescadores. Japan also obtained the peninsula of Liaotung, but Russia, fearful of her growing power, compelled her to return it to China. In 1900-1903 the aggressions of Russia in Manchuria and Korea so menaced Japan that they led to war in 1904. Japan, which now had a defensive treaty with England that was a source of strength to her, as it kept off the other powers, was again victorious. She captured Russia's Asiatic stronghold, Port Arthur, and annihilated the Russian fleet. President Roosevelt intervened as arbiter and in 1905 a treaty of peace was signed at Portsmouth, New Hampshire. By this treaty Japan's paramount position in Korea was recognized, she received half the island of Sakhalin, all Russia's acquired rights in the Liaotung peninsula, and other concessions.

MODERN JAPAN (1905 to 1921)

This victory enormously increased Japan's prestige, making her a first class power. Her alliance with England was renewed. In 1908 she concluded an arbitration treaty with the United States, the Root-Takahira agreement providing for the maintenance of peace in the Far East, and various treaties with other countries. In 1905 she had assumed direction of the government of Korea and finally annexed the country in 1910. She then turned her attention to strengthening her hold upon China. She increased her activities in Manchuria, where she had railroad and other concessions, and in 1911 was one of five powers that financed the young Chinese republic. In 1917 the United States, in the so-called Lansing-Ishii agreement, recognized Japan's "special interests" in China and in 1919 the Treaty of Versailles gave her Germany's rights in Shantung as well as the mandate over the German islands in the Pacific north of the equator. The United States Senate refused to ratify the treaty and China protested against the Shantung award. Finally, at the Washington Conference of 1921, Japan became a signatory to the four-power treaty guaranteeing existing rights in the Pacific, which ended the Anglo-Japanese alliance, the proposed renewal of which was held to be antagonistic to the United States. At the same time Japan agreed to return the German rights in Shantung to China and to abandon certain of the more sweeping of the concessions that had been made to her.



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WHAT IS JAPANESE DEMOCRACY?

Continued from page 63

return one member, while a larger city containing more than 100,000 inhabitants is to elect one member for every 130,000 people. The rural districts send one member at the rate of every 130,000 inhabitants approximately. Elections are by secret ballot. There is one vote for one man by secret ballot, and a general election must take place every four years. Every Japanese male subject of not less than 30 years of age is eligible for election to the House unless excluded for mental incapacity or for deprivation of civil rights. The property qualification that was formerly enforced for candidates was struck out by the amendments to the election law of 1900. By the new law the House contains 464 members, of which 352 come from rural and 112 from urban districts.

CLAY: Will you tell me something about Japan's local government?

MATSUMOTO: For purposes of local administration Japan proper is divided into forty-three prefectures and three Fus (municipal prefectures), excluding Hokkaido, Taiwan and Chosen (Korea). These are subdivided, as Hiroshi Sato notes, in "Democracy and the Japanese Government," into subdistricts or counties in which urban and rural communes are organized.

CLAY: What is the smallest local unit?

MATSUMOTO: Rural communes, and they differ somewhat in area and population.

CLAY: What of the urban communes?

MATSUMOTO: There are two classes of urban communes. One is called the city, and is an independent municipal county; the other is the urban commune, called Cho or Machi.

CLAY: How is their government made up?

MATSUMOTO: It is practically uniform in all the divisions I have enumerated to you, and is characterized by the vesting of executive power in a single officer, called "Governor" or "Prefect" in the Fu or prefecture, Guncho in the counties, and Mayor or Headman in the communes.

CLAY: How do these divisions of local government work together?

MATSUMOTO: Their administrative relation is hierarchical. Appeals go from each local government to the next above it.

CLAY: Now, about the candidates for these offices?

MATSUMOTO: The prefectural election laws place restrictions in the form of property qualifications both upon the candidates and the electorate. Hiroshi Sato declares that the system disqualifies many men of ability and intelligence who are fit to serve their prefects as members of the local Assembly. The Assembly is an honorary body and its members serve without compensation. This Japanese writer says also that this system eliminates the greater part of the intelligent class from voting and this, coupled with the helplessness of their representatives, is largely responsible for the extensive apathy of the voters in the prefectures.

CLAY: What are the functions of the Prefectural Assembly?

MATSUMOTO: It exercises control over the finances of the prefecture and other matters and is reinforced by a Council, the chief business of which is to amplify the resolutions of the Assembly. Prefectures having a population of under 700,000 have an Assembly of at least 30 mem-

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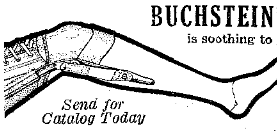

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bers. An additional member is elected for every 50,000 inhabitants for a Prefecture of more than 700,000 to 1,000,000, and so on. The Council is composed of ten honorary members for a municipal Prefecture and seven for an ordinary, all elected from among members of the Assembly. Cities have their own Assemblies and Councils, whose functions used to be legislative and executive, respectively, but whose mutual relation is now like that between the Assembly and Council of the Prefecture. The executive power is now vested solely in the Mayor, who has to execute his duty in accordance with the will of these two bodies. The Council is absent in towns and their respective Headmen undertake the executive duty in compliance with the will of the Assembly. As for the Mayors of cities, three candidates for the mayoralty are nominated by the Assembly, and one of the trio is chosen as Mayor by the Emperor. Headmen of towns and villages are similarly elected with the approval of the Prefectural Governors.

CLAY: What's the difference between American and Japanese local government?

MATSUMOTO: In Japan local governments of the larger jurisdictions, that is, the Prefectures and the Counties, is conducted by officers who are agents of the central government, and who are at the same time executives of local administration. Local power is given by the Diet by general grant, but exercise of it, is subject to central administrative control. This control does not prevent the local corporations from exercising full authority, but it does prevent them from acting extravagantly or unwisely, and from encroaching on the jurisdiction of the central government. Such subjects as police, schools, and the supervision of subordinate local authorities are deemed to affect the whole country, as Hiroshi Sato notes, and are placed in the hands of persons who act as agents of the national Government. The building of roads, establishment of market houses, maintenance, of almshouses, and the voting of appropriations for local purposes are regarded as matters of local interest.

CLAY: What about your professional officials in local government?

MATSUMOTO: It is said that the introduction of unpaid or lay officials into local government lessens the influence of the bureaucracy in local affairs and tends to draft into the public service the better class of private citizens and at the same time to interest the people in local self-government. All professional officials are members of the Japanese bureaucracy. Before they are qualified to hold positions, they are required to go through an elaborate training, and to pass a civil examination. The non-professional officers have no special training, but are selected from among the members of the Assembly.

CLAY: Are your politicians professional?

MATSUMOTO: (Laughs) Are yours?

CLAY: When they succeed they are; and when they fail they are called statesmen.

MATSUMOTO: I think you'll find Japan's talent for imitation displaying itself to a degree in this matter also. But (pointing to the car window) look! We have run clear out of the fog. Will you have luncheon with me?

CLAY: Thanks to you, I've also got rid of some of the fog that darkened my brain about Japan's Government. So I'll eat well.

(They shake hands warmly.)

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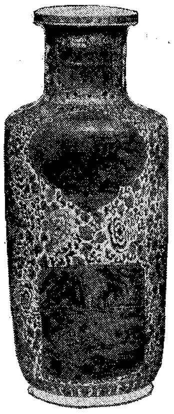

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BOOKS ▲ ON ▲ JAPAN

The following suggestions for reading are based upon the best library lists. Additions have been made covering most of the recent publications on the subjects so that the reader may feel confident of a tolerably comprehensive guide to the literature on Japan.

JAPANESE HISTORY

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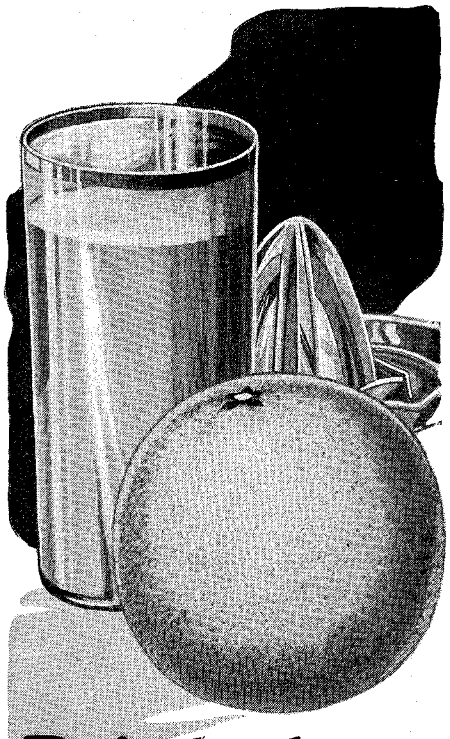

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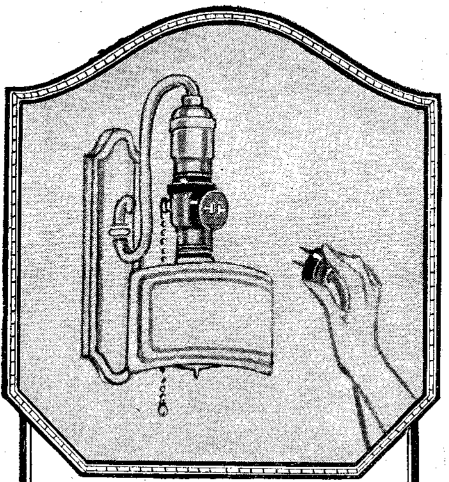

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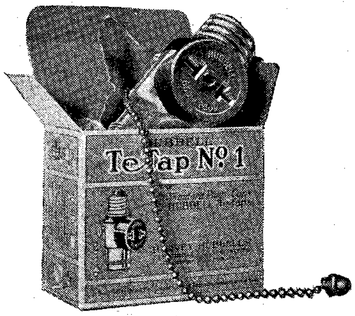

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JAPAN'S FRICTION WITH OUR PACIFIC COAST

WHILE Commodore Perry was "prying open the doors of Japan," the great "Gold Rush" of the Forty-Niners was in full swing; and half a century later the human tides then let loose met in the States of California, Washington and Oregon. In miniature, says a recent Japanese writer, the difficulty in California typifies the general struggle in which East and West are now being involved. Our Pacific Coast, in common with Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, has taken strong measures to keep away the Asiatic invasion, and Japan, it is frequently pointed out, should be able to get their point of view, because she herself has had to take similar measures of exclusion against the Chinese. Self-preservation demands some such stand, and, declares Julian Street, one of the most recent and widely read commentators on the situation, in "Mysterious Japan":

> The intelligent and patriotic sentiment of the United States is at present overwhelmingly in favor of the stoppage of all immigration; even if there comes a time when it is felt that the floodgates may again be opened, they will not, if wisdom prevails, be opened wide, but will admit only such aliens as are susceptible to assimilation.
>
> What does assimilation mean?
>
> It means that the immigrant shall lose his racial identity in ours. It means that he shall be susceptible to absorption into the body of our race through marriage, or at the very least that his children shall be susceptible to such absorption. And this in turn means, among other things, that he shall have no ineradicable physical characteristics which strongly differentiate him from our national physical type.
>
> This is one chief reason why, in my opinion, Orientals should never settle in the United States. Broadly speaking, they are no more suited to become citizens of the United States than we are to become citizens of Japan or China.
>
> Another chief reason why Japanese labor immigration is not agreeable to us is that the Japanese can live on less than we can. They are willing to work longer hours for less pay. Also they are thrifty. These are virtues; but the fact that they are virtues does not make Japanese competition the more welcome to white labor.
>
> This point also should readily be appreciated by the people of Japan, who find it generally necessary to exclude Chinese labor on precisely the same ground—that is, because a Chinaman can live on less than a Japanese, and can consequently work for lower wages.
>
> Had California, in her desire to prevent the further acquirement of land by Japanese settlers, rested her case on these two clean-cut issues: namely, unassimilability and economic necessity; had she refrained from vituperation, taking up the matter purely on its merits; had she recognized her duty as a State to the nation and cooperated with the Washington Government, instead of ignoring the international bearing of the question and embarrassing the Government by radical and independent State action; and had she, above all, shown any disposition to deal as justly with the Japanese as the circumstances would permit; then, without a doubt the entire nation would have been behind California. And what is perhaps as important, the whole matter could then have been presented to Japan in a reasonable and temperate manner, without offense, yet with arguments, the force of which Japan could hardly escape.

The number of Japanese in California, according to the Sacramento *Bee*, is about 109,000, altho the California Board of Control, as quoted by George Gleason in his recent book, "What Shall I Think of Japan?" (Macmillan), gives the number at 86,876, and the United States Census of 1920 gives only 70,196. The official State figure is certainly far below the mark, declares Professor Walter B. Pitkin of Columbia University, in his book, "Must We Fight Japan?" (Century), "and the more recent returns of the Federal census are still further off." There are three causes, he says, for these underestimates. The first is that Japanese census takers were employed in the Japanese districts, and they were "not over-zealous in making the number of their countrymen out to be as large as possible." In the second place scattering Japanese who didn't care to be quizzed, got out of the way. In the third place the Japanese are stealing into the State over the Mexican line, and nobody knows how many are coming across. Californians, concludes Professor Pitkin, are worried over the possibility that they may have about 125,000 Japanese in their State and if "such a group tends to be exclusive and to perpetuate its language, religion, and social customs, it can and will do all this about four times as easily when doubled."

The situation has been met in part by the so-called "Gentlemen's Agreement," of 1907. The term applies to "the substance of a number of informal notes exchanged between the State Department and the Japanese Ambassador at that time." As summarized by K. K. Kawakami, in "The Real Japanese Question" (Macmillan), the crux of this agreement is Japan's promise to refrain from issuing passports to Japanese laborers desiring to enter territories contiguous to continental United States, such as Mexico or Canada, and to recognize the right of the United States to refuse admission to the United States of Japanese of the laboring class whose passports do not include continental United States.

But this compact, which provided for the admission of parents, wives or children of Japanese who have become domiciled in continental United States, as Professor Yoski S. Kuno of the University of California points out in "What Japan Wants" (Crowell), "instead of checking immigration as was intended, brought about directly opposite results." To quote:

> The Japanese Association was organized, Japanese schools were established, and Japanese residents in California who had wives in Japan sent for them, while many bachelors imported Picture Brides. Those with parents or children brought them to this country also. Upon arrival, many brides worked as housemaids, while in

many other cases whole families worked together either in the fields or in the fisheries. In addition to those thus brought into the United States, the number of Japanese in the State was steadily augmented by the high birth-rate on California soil. Thus did the Japanese come to establish settlements within the United States and to organize a government within a government.

The California legislature's Anti-Alien Law, and its amendment, followed. According to the provisions of the Anti-Alien Law, foreigners ineligible to naturalization may neither buy nor inherit land in California; neither may they lease agricultural land for a period exceeding three years. However, city lots for industrial and residence purposes may be leased for the same length of time for which land in Japan is leased to foreigners according to treaty provisions. At present the longest term of lease obtainable in Japan is 99 years. The amendment prohibits entirely the leasing of agricultural lands by aliens ineligible to naturalization. It also prohibits parents becoming guardians of minors in whose names land is purchased.

These laws, together with the exclusion of Japanese from naturalization, have caused much complaint from the Japanese, while the high Japanese birth-rate, their ability to underbid and under-live American labor, and the danger that they may drive Americans out of California as the cheaper-living Chinese are to-day driving the Japanese out of Manchuria, have set most of the Coast residents against them. Professor Payson J. Treat of Stanford University joins with another recent investigator, Julian Street, in placing additional blame for the friction upon "partizan, often misleading, and frequently absolutely false statements about the Japanese." The situation can be controlled, they agree, if politics and politicians can be kept from interfering too much. Professor Treat notes that "an encouraging lesson of the past may be found in the remarkable change which has taken place in the attitude of many Californians toward the Chinese," who, in the early days, "were the victims of misrepresentations far worse than the Japanese have had to endure." Julian Street, after urging a change in the "present discriminatory alien land law," goes on:

> The Japanese laborers who are already legally here—many of them originally brought here, by the way, at the instance of Californian employers—should be treated with absolute fairness. They should not be deprived of the just rewards of their industry and thrift. Their racial virtues should be appreciated and might well be emulated.
>
> It should be clear, however, that for our good and the good of the Japanese, no further immigrants of their laboring class should ever enter the United States. And it should be equally clear that in such a statement there is no cause for offense.
>
> Let us try, then, on both sides, to look at these problems with honest eyes. Let us try to get each other's point of view.

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INVESTMENTS AND FINANCE

THE POST-WAR TREND TOWARD HIGHER TARIFFS

IT seems generally understood that a Republican Administration means higher tariffs in the United States, but it has not perhaps been generally recognized that this is part of a world-wide trend. An official of the Department of Commerce, quoted in a Washington dispatch to *The Wall Street Journal*, calls attention to tariff legislation in the principal foreign countries. Higher duties are being levied mostly for protection, but in some cases for fiscal purposes. Industrial interests have been demanding more protection, and there have been other factors responsible for the wave of tariff legislation, such as "exchange depreciation, abrogation of commercial treaties by the war, the tendency toward economic self-sufficiency, adverse balances in trade, inadequate revenue, retaliation for trade restrictions, the desire to bring about a general movement for new commercial treaties, and the desire to meet new economic conditions." Accomplishments in the way of tariff-raising on the part of eleven countries are noted by the Department of Commerce man, *The Wall Street Journal* quoting or summarizing his statement as follows:

> Argentina has, by executive decree, made a 20% horizontal increase.
>
> Australia made a provisional revision of tariff March 25, 1920, which increased the British preference.
>
> In Belgium, specific rates of duty have been increased up to 600% limit, and value at time of declaration substituted for that of country of origin.
>
> In India, as early as 1917, import duty on cotton goods was increased from 3½% to 7% ad valorem. In the 1921 budget duties are increased on sugar, tobacco, and automobiles, and those on articles not specified are all raised from 7½% to 11% ad valorem.
>
> In Canada the most definite movement has been the conclusion, in 1920, of a new preferential arrangement with the British West Indies. In October, 1920, provision was made for an indication of the home consumption value of imported goods in paper currency.
>
> February 23, 1921, Chile provided for horizontal increases ranging from 50% to 100%, largely for fiscal reasons.
>
> France met the reconstruction problem of protection, not by a general revision, but by successive increases in existing rates. All French rates are specific. A system of coefficients has been introduced which approximated, roughly, the loss in protection resulting from the rise in prices. There is no doubt it has also been used for increasing protection, as well as discouraging importations of certain goods. France has abrogated her commercial treaties in anticipation of general revision.
>
> Germany has increased tobacco products and spirits duties. The Versailles treaty has curtailed her capacity to change import tariffs.
>
> Italy's tariff of July, 1921, has materially increased duties. Coefficients add from 10% to 200% to basic rates. Duties are stated in gold lire.
>
> By laws in 1920 and 1921, Japan elevated duties on dyes and other new industries, and has adopted ad valorem in place of specific charge.
>
> Spain has given notice of the denunciation of all commercial treaties, preparatory to general revision. Numerous increases became effective December 1, 1920, and there was further upward revision May 21, 1921, with 10% to 200% increases of maximum tariffs.

WHY SWISS MONEY IS AT A PREMIUM

A FEW days ago it was noted by newspaper readers that the American dollar, at a premium almost everywhere in the world, was actually at a discount in exchange in Switzerland. The point is that Swiss currency is at a premium throughout Europe just as American money is. The reasons for its position are slightly different, however, as The New York *Times* notes editorially:

> Switzerland is the neighbor of several countries whose currencies are at a discount. Germany in particular floods Switzerland with goods produced by cheap marks, but sold for dear francs. The wealth of several countries is seeking stability in Switzerland from the depreciation of domestic currencies, and refuge from the tempest of taxation which must overtake them all before normal conditions are restored. French taxation is three times German taxation, and Germany is France's debtor for great sums which the world is committed to see paid if possible. Germans can see that their property loses value as taxes rise, and they prefer to sacrifice it for Swiss currency. Also, Switzerland is a tourist country, and its currency is swollen above its needs by expenditures which normally are a source of profit, but now are a source of embarrassment of riches, although shrunken.
>
> In less degree we are subject to the same conditions. Already we have more credit and currency than we need, and constantly more is pressed upon us. Already unemployment is with us, as with Switzerland, and the remedy of our lawmakers, as of Switzerland's, is to enact statutes hindering that interchange of goods which provides the natural and best stabilizer and corrective for disordered international exchanges.
>
> The range in the quotations of dollar exchange is limited to the comparatively negligible cost of sending gold or supplying gold credits. Switzerland is too small and poor a country to finance its distressed neighbors, and it is without our means of proportioning currency to the needs of commerce by retiring it when excessive, or expanding it by billions to meet any approved demand. In particular we are favored over Switzerland by our ability to provide the world with the goods it wants, whereas Swiss commerce is largely luxury trade at a time when the world is economizing.

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(*Continued from page 71*)

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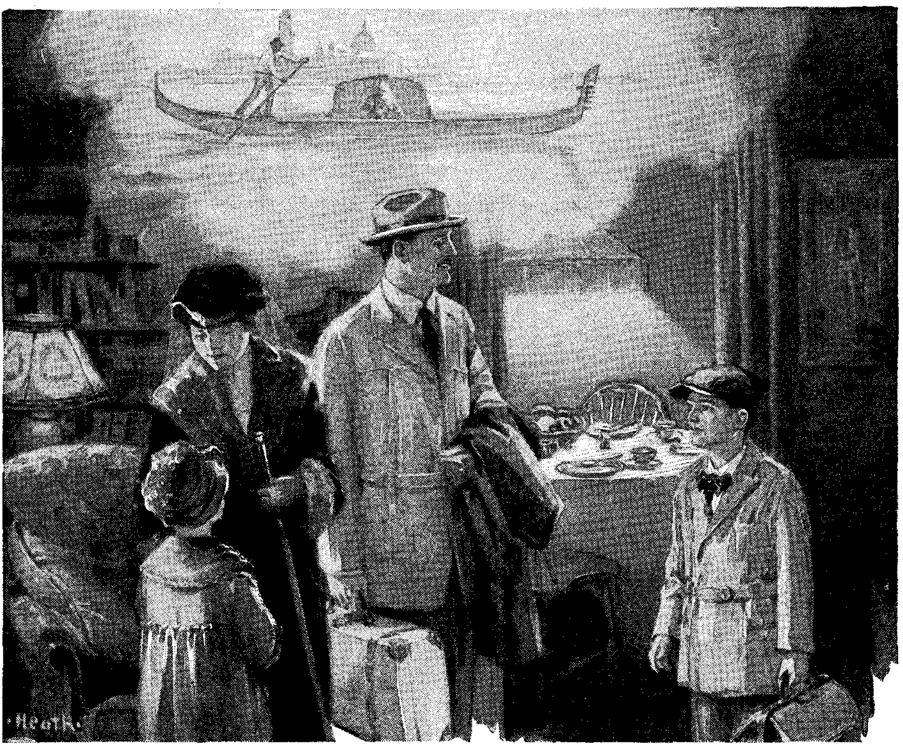

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CURRENT EVENTS

FOREIGN

December 21.—Premier Briand and Lloyd George decide to call a meeting in the first week in January of the Supreme Council of the Allies to consider the German reparations question and other matters concerning the economic restoration of Europe.

Dr. Traugott von Jagow, former Berlin police commissioner, is sentenced to five years' imprisonment by the Federal Supreme Court at Leipsic for the part he played in the Kapp revolt of March, 1920.

December 22.—The Dail Eireann, called to consider ratification of the Anglo-Irish peace treaty, adjourns to January 3, on a motion carried by a vote of 77 to 44.

Two supporters of Said Zagloul Pasha, one of the Egyptian Nationalist leaders, are killed and six are wounded in a fight resulting from an order that Zagloul and his chief followers cease political activity and leave Cairo.

December 23.—Two British warships are ordered to proceed immediately to Egypt, where frequent clashes between the Nationalists and the British authorities are causing anxiety.

December 24.—It is reported from Tokyo that the Japanese Government will make no further concessions to China in regard to the Shantung peninsula.

Five persons are killed and twenty wounded in Cairo in disorders resulting from the Egyptian nationalist agitation.

The treaty between the United States and Colombia reimbursing Colombia to the extent of $25,000,000 for territorial losses sustained through the setting up of the Republic of Panama is approved by the Colombian Chamber of Deputies and signed by the President.

The Russian Soviet Government agrees to turn over to the American Relief Administration $10,000,000 in gold for relief in the Volga famine area.

December 25.—Nationalist disturbances are reported in various parts of Egypt, and the public is notified that rioting and the destruction of property will be rigorously suppress by the military.

Bishop Browne, of the Diocese of Cloyne, Ireland, urges approval of the peace treaty between Great Britain and Ireland.

December 26.—Nationalist outbreaks occur at Cairo, Suez, and Port Said, and it is estimated that thus far 19 persons have been killed and about 45 wounded in the Egyptian riots.

The Peruvian Government tenders its good offices to settle the dispute between Bolivia and Chile over the Tacna and Arica territories.

December 27.—The French Cabinet unanimously approves the attitude of the French delegation at Washington in demanding 90,000 tons of submarines.

DOMESTIC

December 22.—Federal investigation of retail prices for food, fuel, shoes and clothing is initiated by Attorney-General Daugherty, who says that prices of necessary commodities are too high.

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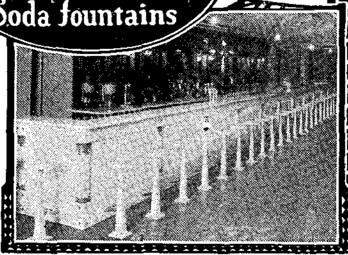

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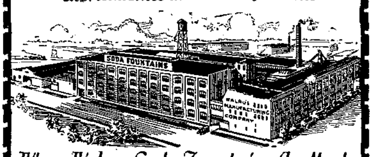

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Colonel Henry Watterson, distinguished American journalist and known throughout the world as "Marse Henry," dies at Jacksonville, Florida, in his 82d year.

December 23.—President Harding commutes the prison sentences of Eugene V. Debs, several times Socialist candidate for President, and 23 other persons who had been convicted of obstructing the Government's prosecution of the war.

Eight negroes and one white man are killed and many are injured in a hurricane beginning in Arkansas and sweeping down the Mississippi River.

President Harding issues a statement in which he says that the Four-Power Treaty is not an alliance, and that no alliance is being considered.

The French delegates lay before the Naval Committee of the Washington Arms Conference a demand that France be allowed 90,000 tons of submarines.

December 24.—Chairman Hughes, of the Washington Arms Conference, presents a compromise plan for the limitation of submarines in which he suggests 60,000 tons each for the United States and Great Britain, and the status quo for France, Italy and Japan, which allows 31,500 tons each for France and Japan, and 21,250 tons for Italy.

Judge Webster Thayer denies two of the pending motions for a new trial for Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti, the Communists convicted by a Massachusetts court of murder.

December 26.—Eugene V. Debs calls on Attorney-General Daugherty and President Harding, and is assured by them that his release is unconditional. The commutation does not, however, restore his citizenship.

Chairman McCormick, of the Senate Committee investigating conditions in Haiti and Santo Domingo, issues a statement in which he holds that American Army rule in Santo Domingo is the best that country has had and is still necessary.

The New Workers' Party of America, which has as its program the establishment of a workers' revolutionary republic in this country by constitutional methods, is organized in New York.

December 27.—Because of recent changes in the Soviet government policies, trade relations between Russia and the United States may be resumed, according to a statement from the White House.

One Who Remembers.—"Our friends may forget us," observed the street-car philosopher, "but the fellow who sends out the quarterly dun for the income-tax gatherers never does."—*Buffalo Express.*

Cap or Skin?—In probably the last speech Booker T. Washington ever made, an address at the anniversary exercises of the American Missionary Association in New Haven, with that quiet humor so characteristic of him, he satirized the prejudice against his people. "A member of my race," he said, "wanted to go from New York to San Francisco. He wanted to travel first-class in a Pullman sleeper. He bought a red cap—fez, I think you call it—forgot the English language, and went as an East Indian; and no one objected. It appears that it is not the color of the skin, but the color of the cap to which you object."—*The Outlook.*

After you shave, rinse off the soap, dry the skin and rub on just enough Hinds Cream to moisten it. 'Twill soon cool and relieve all tenderness, smarting, scraped or cut surfaces. And it will prevent chapping of the face and hands.

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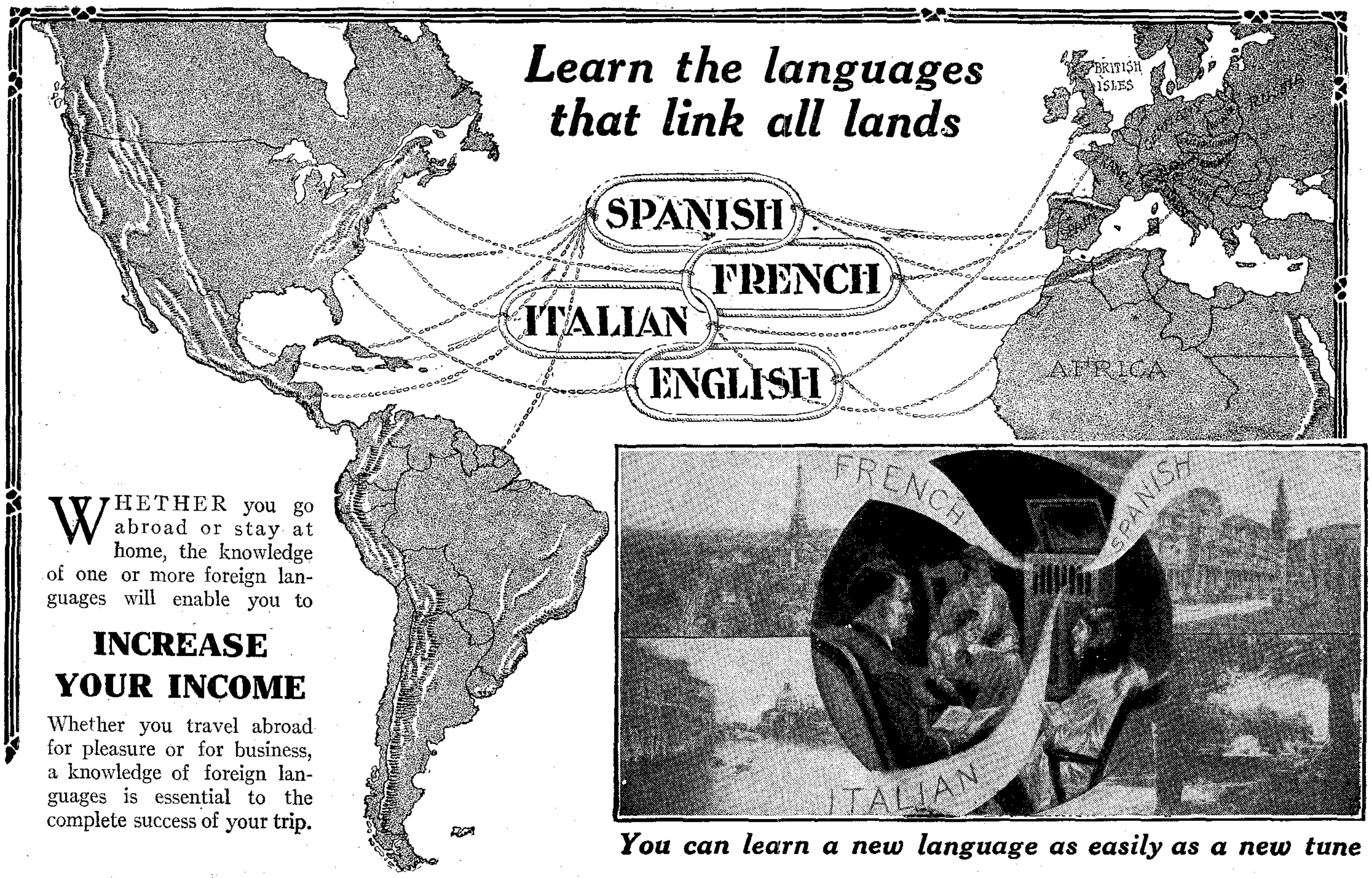

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THE SPICE OF LIFE—JAPANESE BRAND

(Translations from Tokyo *Puck* and Other Japanese Sources.)

No Sound Interpretation.—On seeing a lusty chanticleer crow at the top of its voice, a fellow born deaf remarked, "How he yawns, that sleepy bird!"

Order Out of Order.—MAID—"Madam, our telephone doesn't work."

MISTRESS (impatiently)—"Ring Information and ask why."

Camouflage.—GONZO—"Why do you carry that medicine bottle around?"

GENZO—"To make the Evil Spirit believe I am sick already, and so leave me alone."

The Kind They Get.—POLICE CHIEF—"As to the perpetrator of the heinous murder, I say we are going to catch him yet."

CITIZEN—"Another suspect you mean?"

In a Wet Climate.—TEACHER—"What's the difference between a pint and a quart?"

SON OF A TIPPLER—"A pint is what makes you happy; a quart's what makes you drunk."

No Evidence.—A TOKYO GIRL—"See, these are the beauty preparations that I use, all imported from France and America."

A COUSIN FROM THE COUNTRY (unimprest)—"I don't see that they are so very good, are they?"

The Blind Man Looks Out.—A blind man, on going out on a dark night, asked a non-blind man:

"Give me a lantern?"

"What's that for? You can't see anyhow."

"Yes, but it is for the benefit of those who can see, and therefore might bump into me."

The Point of Contact.—Seven blind men went to "see" an elephant. One of them, bumping into the great beast's side, said, "Here is a creature resembling a wall." Another, feeling the trunk, likened the elephant to a serpent; another, touching a tusk, announced that the animal resembled a spear; and still another, grasping an ear, compared the elephant to a large leaf. The one who got hold of the tail likened it to a rope, while he who embraced a leg thought of a tree, and he who crawled over the back declared that an elephant resembled a hill.

There in a paragraph you have Japan and her interpreters.

Where East and West Meet.—Please remember that *Kokkei* and *Kekko* are two different Japanese words and should not be mixed, one meaning *ridiculous* and the other *splendid.*

A European professor in the Imperial University of Tokyo, the proud of his linguistic attainments, did not fully appreciate the importance of the difference between the two words until the day when he had occasion to go to felicitate a Japanese colleague of his on the arrival of a new baby. The European scholar spoke in fluent Japanese something to this effect: "I hear, sir, your wife has a new son. How ridiculous!"

Most Likely.—GOROBEI—"There are so many cases of incendiarism nowadays. What do you think causes them?"

ROKUROBEI—"Matches, mostly, I imagine."

Posthumous Glory.—A poor girl committed suicide after writing to a local newspaper—"Please when you report my case in your honorable paper, say that I had on me 10,000 yen, in cash."

Where's the Landlord?—"You rent this house?"

"Yes, but it is almost like owning it."

"How?"

"I haven't paid the rent for the past ten months."

Shaking Afterwards.—When the nurse entered, her boy patient was in a furious fit of writhing convulsions. "What is the matter?" she cried anxiously.

"I forgot," replied the boy, "to shake the bottle before taking the medicine."

The Housing Situation.—FIRST GENTLEMAN (sympathetically)—"It must be terrible to hunt for a house—I never do."

SECOND GENTLEMAN (enviously)—"Lucky man! You own your house?"

FIRST GENTLEMAN—"No, I rent a room."

Out-Edisoning Edison.—HACHI—"I am disgusted with the chronic delays in our parcel post service."

KICHI (who is somewhat hazy about the modern devices of transportation and of communication)—"Why don't you send your things by telegraph?"

Self-Sacrificing Japanese.—An American furrier generally clothes your wife by skinning you. Here is a Tokyo furrier who has put up an English sign over his shop which reads as follows:

"Garments made with your skin or our skin."

Love, Reason and Logic.—A romantic lover, failing to persuade his lady love to die with him by taking poison, confessed: "I just wanted to test your love—this phial contains only water."

"Don't you see," she replied, "how foolish it would have been for me to drink water?"

A JAPANESE-ENGLISH LETTER

THE porter in a Japanese office not infrequently sleeps on the premises. But he must have the necessary equipment, as the following letter from an agent to a principal reveals:

Dear Sir:

In accordance to your esteemed conversation of other day for lodging the servant at this office, we consider we must provide to him the bed or sleeping tools. Please inform us that you could approve the expense to purchase this tool.

Awaiting your esteemed reply we, dear sir,

Yours faithfully,

T—— A——.

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UNLESS you look forward now, it may be your family's portion to look backward after you are gone, with vain regrets.

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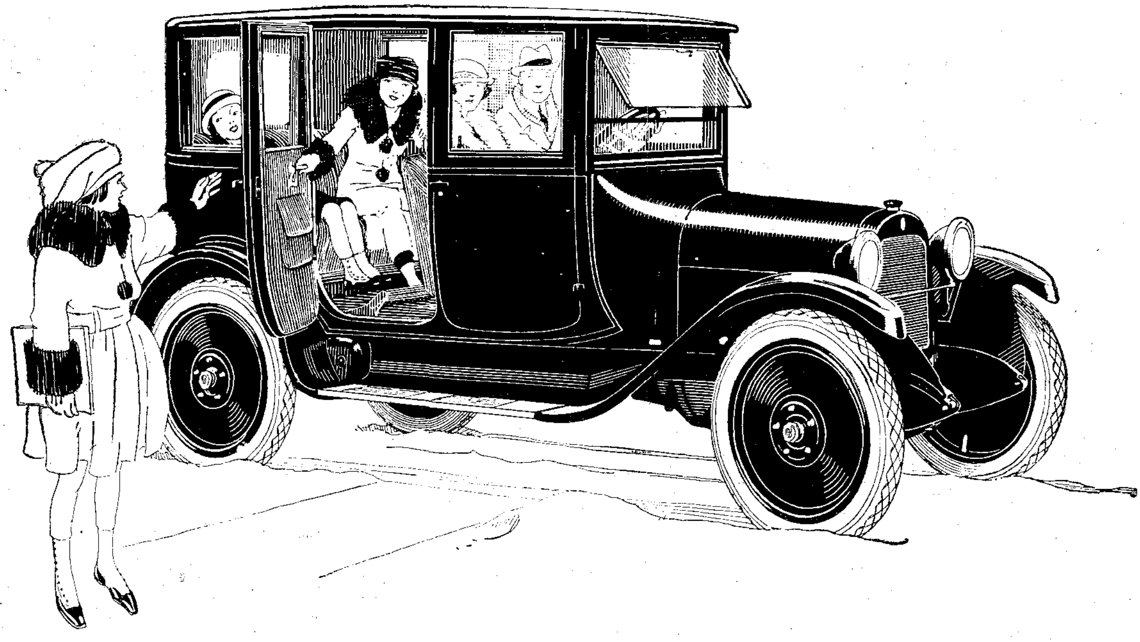

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